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OFFICIAL PROCEEDINGS, 77TH ANNUAL MEETING
NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK
ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY, APRIL 23-28, 1950

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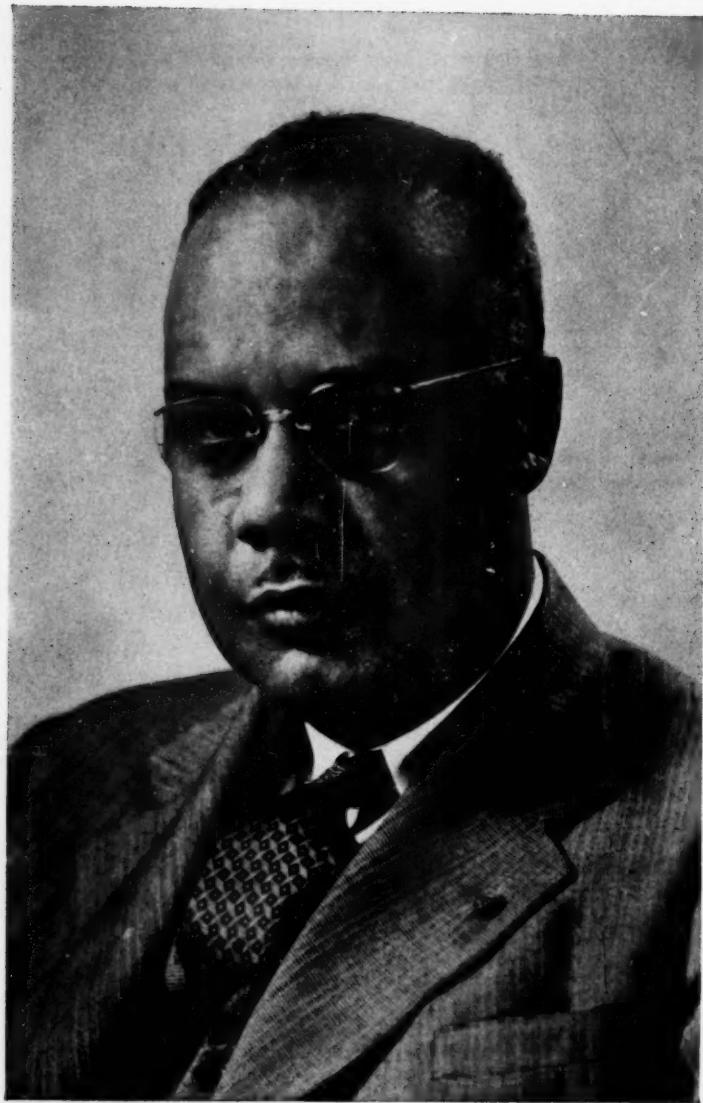
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Leslie Braugher

Foreword

IT is a daring editorial committee which attempts to present in two modest volumes, of which this is the first, even the basic skeleton of the vast body of discussion that took place during the Seventy-seventh National Conference of Social Work. This volume contains less than twenty of the principal addresses before the General Sessions and sectional meetings of the Conference. Thus, while serving as a symbol of the broad scope of social interest covered during the proceedings, it also illustrates the utter impossibility of including within a limited number of pages any adequate presentation of the varied experiences and points of view and the differing interpretations of social philosophy and theory that were offered by the speakers.

It is these variations and frequently deep differences that make the National Conference of Social Work a distinctive and useful adjunct to social work thinking and practice. The Conference is one of the largest of the annual national forums. More than 5,600 persons assembled for the sessions at Atlantic City, New Jersey. They met in more than 350 regularly scheduled meetings, which included the activities of 47 associate and special groups affiliated with the Conference and making use of its "umbrella" of meeting facilities. Some of the Conference participants were lay representatives of social agencies; more were professional staff members. Others were officials from Federal and state welfare and planning agencies; still others were leaders of industry or organized labor or other special interest groups among the American population. With all of these relating their discussions to the Conference theme—"Opportunity, Security, Responsibility: Democracy's Objectives"—it was remarkable, not that wide differences of opinion were evident, but that throughout the Conference there was no challenging the postulate that "democracy's objectives" were demanding and attainable.

Not only social workers should be interested in reading this vol-

ume, and the second one to follow, and keeping it as a lasting reference. For sociologists and economists, civic leaders and students alike, the Proceedings of the Seventy-seventh National Conference of Social Work present an exciting view of the panorama of social change in America. They indicate what devoted leadership of today is thinking about problems of the present and plans for tomorrow. They present facts and figures, theories and opinions, coming from men and women with deep experience in dealing with the social problems of American living, and with an abiding concern for defending democracy by making democracy work.

The officers of the Conference present this volume to the public with confidence that it will be widely and thoughtfully read.

LESTER B. GRANGER

First Vice President

National Conference of Social Work

New York, New York
September 1, 1950

Fifty Years of Social Work

IN DEVELOPING the United States statement for presentation to the Paris meeting of the International Conference of Social Work, held in July, 1950, several groups were requested to prepare preliminary material. Included in these was the National Social Welfare Assembly, which was asked for "suggestions . . . which would give an over-all picture of the significant developments in social welfare in the United States during the first half of the century . . . in terms both of method and technique and of philosophy and theory."

In carrying out this assignment, the Assembly sent letters to twenty-three former presidents of the National Conference of Social Work and to ten other leaders in the field asking for their views. Replies were received from twenty-one persons.

As a first step in analyzing the content of the letters received from these persons a list was compiled of the ideas or subjects mentioned in each reply. From the twenty-one replies a list of over one hundred items was compiled. The list itself suggested certain areas of emphasis which resulted in the selection of five major groupings:

1. The Impact of Psychiatry on Social Work
2. The Professionalization of Social Work
3. The Effects of Specialization in Social Work
4. The Changing Concept of Community Organization
5. The Extension of Public Welfare Services and the Changing Role of the Private Agencies

Each of the ideas listed fell into one or more of these groups. With the material thus organized the similarities as well as the differences were noted, and the following collation was drafted:

I. THE IMPACT OF PSYCHIATRY ON SOCIAL WORK

The impact of psychiatry on social work is recognized as one of the most significant developments in social work during the past

fifty years. It has had a profound effect on the development of two distinctive methods of social work, casework and social group work, as a means of protecting the value of the individual. The basic theory of social work has developed through such stages as the social reform, the attempts to modify the environment, the concepts of treatment based on understanding of the individual and adapted to individual needs, to the emphasis on the personality of the client. The problems of people have come to be considered the resultant of dynamic forces, and social work has been very much preoccupied with both the identification of these dynamic forces and the devising of ways of dealing with them.

The services our more progressive communities render have moved from a level in which they were direct, palliative, and simple, in the direction of being concerned with hidden factors and hidden relationships. Specifically, for the hungry we gave food, for the offender we gave custody, for the illiterate we gave reading and writing. Social work is now much more concerned with the things that contribute to poverty and undernutrition, to delinquency, and to the inability to write whether they be within the group or within the individual.

These changing theories in social work have been reflected in modifications in legal concepts as well as in revision of methods and programs. One of the most outstanding developments has taken place in the treatment of the juvenile offender. Casework or reeducation in the broadest sense supplemented punishment as a method of treatment. Family service agencies have shifted from programs emphasizing relief-giving and environmental casework services to counseling and consultation service strongly flavored by psychiatry. In the area of child care, institutional care of a custodial nature has been supplanted by selective placement, based on an understanding of each child's personality in relationship to his total situation.

The social work methods of today, as expressed in casework and social group work, are essentially democratic in philosophy and capable of broad application under competent direction for other areas.

II. PROFESSIONALIZATION OF SOCIAL WORK

The gradual acceptance of the concept that social work is a professional discipline has been one of the most important developments during the first half of this century. With this has come a shifting of the technical work of social agencies from board members to staff.

Social work has moved from a dependence on intra-agency training to a general acceptance of graduate preparation as an entry to the profession.

The important growth of training facilities through the graduate schools of social work has contributed to the development of the body of social work knowledge, working principles, and standards. The multidiscipline approach to training has facilitated the utilization of advancements in the related fields of medicine, psychiatry, psychology, and sociology.

The growth of training schools has been accompanied by an increasing application of scientific methods to the analysis of social problems and identification of underlying forces toward the devising of ways of dealing with them. Investigation and research into basic social problems have led to the development of social survey techniques and the use of statistical methods in the determination of need and the interpretation of trends. There is evidence of an increasing awareness of the need for testing the results of social work by research methods, particularly of innovations, as a basis for more successful developments within the field.

Still another development which has pointed to the professional nature of social work has been the appearance of professional organizations, both in the broad field through the American Association of Social Workers and in the specialized fields—medical social work, psychiatric social work, and social group work. The interest in licensing is another indication that social work is following a trend evident in many other fields in which occupations have become recognized as professions.

III. SPECIALIZATION IN SOCIAL WORK

This was a period in which there occurred various differentiations in the practice of social work into casework, social group

work, community organizations, medical and psychiatric social work. Although specialized programs have resulted, there has emerged an acceptance of the concept that methods such as community organization and social group work can be practiced in many settings. It is also recognized that casework skill is basic to all social work practice.

Differentiation in social agency programs as well as in social work practice has been a development of this period. This increased differentiation in programs together with a deepening concern with the underlying factors and relationships in understanding human behavior has focused attention on the interdependence of social agencies. What we used to think of as separate agencies can no longer be thought of in that way, because they not only impinge upon each other and not only deal with the same underlying causes, but also have a stake in each other's quality. A respectful hands-off policy in relationship to another agency or department is really a neglect of one's own agency or function.

Specialization has also had an effect on our concept of social work in its broadest sense. An analysis of the growth of social work in the past fifty years must include recognition of the importance of the developments in the fields of health and education upon which developments in welfare have been in part dependent. However, the term "welfare," for some persons, has come to have a narrower significance which does not include health and education. Scientific advances in the fields of health, welfare, and education have tended to channelize them into communities, to deepen the channels, and to raise the barriers between the fields. The extension of social service into the schools, the hospitals, and the churches would, however, imply a close relationship between all agencies and groups concerned with welfare in its broadest sense.

IV. THE CHANGING CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

In considering the significant developments in the field during the first half of this century it is recognized that the growth of co-operative community effort was first expressed through the development and expansion of community chests and community welfare councils. These programs, first centered around problems

of financing, have expressed an acceptance of the principle of federation.

Cooperative efforts, based upon our philosophy that the welfare of each is the concern of all, have developed through organizations at the local, state, and national levels, such as community welfare councils, state and national conferences, and national coordinating bodies. As we have developed a diversity of skills and programs for meeting the needs of people the importance of cooperative effort has been accentuated. There has been recognition of the fact that the work of any agency is related to the work of all other agencies and that each agency's obligation is to strengthen its own function and to integrate it with the function of all other agencies.

The acceptance of community organization as a process has earlier been mentioned with regard to specialization in the fields of social work. The fact that community organization is a method which can be practiced in many settings has been increasingly realized. This shift from the concept of community organization as expressed solely through programs whose primary function is one of cooperative effort has been a more recent development. However, it is felt that we have made little progress in analyzing and clarifying the dynamics of community organization; that we have tended to depend heavily upon the copying of patterns rather than the identification of principles.

Early lay participation was related primarily to voluntary financing. Social work services are no longer financed solely by the wealthy philanthropist but rather by the combined contributions of a large share of the population through taxation and voluntary gifts by corporations as well as individuals. This shift in responsibility has brought about an increasingly greater emphasis upon the importance of public understanding, interest, and lay leadership. This has been particularly apparent in agencies whose functions are primarily those of community organization, such as community chests and councils.

It has also been pointed out that social workers themselves seem to be less active in the matter of securing social reforms and that there has been an increasing tendency to look to groups outside social work as action bodies. It is said that the average social worker

today participates in social action, if at all, through his professional organizations which have taken over quite largely the social reform functions which earlier were distributed very widely among agency leaders.

V. EXTENSION OF PUBLIC WELFARE SERVICES AND THE CHANGING ROLE OF THE PRIVATE AGENCIES

Recognition of the responsibility of the government in the area of welfare services had existed prior to the twentieth century; however, the growth and extension of this responsibility during the past fifty years have been of utmost importance to the field of social work. New concepts in public welfare as well as new services have been accepted.

As an outgrowth of the administration of both the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and the social security programs, our early poor law concepts of the treatment of the so-called "poor" have been modified. The modern principles of the right to public aid, the confidentiality of records, the right of appeal, etc., mark a significant change from the early 1900s.

It has been recognized that the state is under obligation as the representative of all of us to protect the individual against certain contingencies through the methods of insurance, assistance, and medical and social services. Public responsibility in the areas of physical and mental health, rehabilitation, recreation, and housing has become an established fact.

There has been a significant change from local and state to Federal responsibility in the entire field of public welfare. Questions around the distribution of funds, the supervision and the administration of programs have been controversial. The development of the grant-in-aid device for equalizing funds for social welfare purposes is particularly significant. It has meant a larger share of public service in the areas most in need of such service and least able to pay for it.

The creation and strengthening of Federal welfare agencies has been concurrent with the passage of Federal social legislation. Agencies, such as the United States Children's Bureau, have not

only provided national leadership in the area of child care, but have contributed greatly to research and fact-finding.

Within recent years, effort has been made to introduce into public welfare programs some of the same concepts and methods that were found applicable in the private agencies. This has resulted in an effort to integrate into public welfare agencies the core of social work which formerly resided in the private casework agencies.

The growth of public responsibility for the general welfare has led to important changes in the role of private agencies. Today voluntary effort in social work is regarded as supplementary to, rather than as a substitute for, sound public welfare provisions. In redefining their functions private agencies have given consideration to the need for expression of minority viewpoints and have recognized as one of their functions that of innovator and interpreter. Private agencies represent free enterprise providing for flexibility and for the expression of the concern of citizens around new needs as they appear.

VIRGINIA S. FERGUSON



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PART ONE



Physical, Mental, and Social Well-Being

I. ESSENTIALS FOR THE WORLD'S PEOPLE

By MARTHA M. ELIOT, M.D.

THE BOLDEST OF HOPES and the greatest of fears are shared by the peoples of the world at this half-way point of the twentieth century. At times it seems as though the world itself hung balanced, hesitating on the edge of human disaster. Yet even as we pause and wonder, we know that the life force of the world's people—the will to survive, to live, and to secure life for our children—continually asserts itself. We are part of a world kinship which has confidence in that life force. Ours is a job shared by many professional groups which have to do with nurturing and encouraging the will of human beings to overcome the obstacles that lie in the way of better health and the realization of those dreams for which the human being yearns. Ours is a job of leadership on the way toward a climate of living which is favorable to the fullest human development, an atmosphere in which human beings can breathe freely and climb.

Today our job has grown to global dimensions. It is almost overwhelmingly difficult to face such dimensions, for though our field of knowledge has gained immeasurably in the past few decades, never have our gains been fast enough to catch up with the needs of all the people. Yet those of us who work in the cause of health and welfare for the world's people go on the assumption that somehow the global dimensions will be achieved.

As your colleague in this endeavor I ask you for the moment not to forget your own particular job, the people with whom you work



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As your colleague in this endeavor I ask you for the moment not to forget your own particular job, the people with whom you work

day by day, but to recognize with me their hopes, their fears, and their aims in the faces of other people round the world—people whose differences in race, religion, nationality, or political conviction may cover but do not conceal those most valuable human attributes and yearnings, and the human needs they have in common with others the world over.

"Health," says the constitution of the World Health Organization, "is a state of physical, mental and social well-being not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." These words give us a point of departure from which we can explore how, through giving life to an international program of health, we can extend to all peoples a better understanding of the meaning of human dignity and rights, individual opportunity, integrity, and security, and the well-being of the individual in the group and his responsibility to the group. A vast expansion and deepening of our knowledge of the world's people is called for, and of the history and meaning of their many different cultures. Too little is known of the potential contributions of these cultures to the total well-being of nations and to the ability of men to live in harmony with one another.

Already a network of tracks is being formed around the world, as people come together in large or small groups from many different countries to work for their common well-being. In one of the largest of these groups, the World Health Assembly, some 250 to 300 people from all parts of the world meet annually to lay down policy and decide on program for the WHO. In the Assembly more than sixty nations are represented, nations of all shades of political thought, all degrees of economic, industrial, social, and cultural development. These nations are pooling money and personnel to make possible international teamwork and to carry forward group action through the organization that they have formed.

In 1949, in one way or another, seventy-nine countries felt the impact of this group action. Consultants, advisers, and teams of experts demonstrated health methods and procedures; sorely needed medical literature was made available; fellowships were granted to their health personnel for foreign study. The international character of this action is demonstrated at the organization's headquarters in Geneva, where thirty-nine nationalities are repre-

sented on the central staff, at the regional offices, and in the selection of experts to visit countries at their request. In addition, thirty expert committees, subcommittees, panels, and study groups made up of about two hundred specialists in various scientific fields from thirty-five countries are convened regularly to advise the Organization.

As a part of this teamwork, broadcasts are beamed daily around the world bringing within the listening range of people everywhere information on the incidence of certain pestilential diseases. Work is also carried forward on the standardization of many biological substances, on the gathering and dissemination of health statistics, on the international pharmacopoeia, and the list of causes of deaths. This great pool of international effort has potentialities for the well-being of people out of all proportion with its present budget.

The most valuable thing shared by the nations, however, is the process of acting together, for here a new force is released. In this group action at the international level, something new is being formulated which may give real meaning to the phrase "one world."

International group action of this dynamic character should, and I believe can, replace the international rivalries and competition that lead to antagonisms. Competition is usually thought of in terms of acquisition of power or means to gain power. But could it be that competition among nations can gradually be aimed at the improvement of well-being of people? Is there a better or more effective common cause?

But make no mistake: this process of group action is not simple or easy. It involves enormous difficulties. When a committee report is made, when expert advice is given, when a scientific paper is presented, or when social health is discussed, the meaning may be different to each nation. One quickly learns to recognize as a reality what all of us would subscribe to in theory: no one country has all the answers. Programs must be organized and personnel trained to suit the particular needs and circumstances of each country. To this job each can contribute; from it, each can learn.

It would be hard to find the person today who will not agree that it is of crucial importance for nations to develop a reasonable atti-

tude toward each other in the interests of working toward friendly relations and international harmony. Most thoughtful people feel that in the family of nations we must learn to bear with one another, just as the individual family group does, in a process of give-and-take for the sake of that common security which allows growth for each family member. Many people are even ready to take steps in some direction which would affirm such a belief. But what steps to take, we say. In which direction is the way?

Here the knowledge and insight gathered from our study of the development of human beings can guide us. These lead us to believe that the fullest understanding could come about between nations if they were backed up by, if they were composed of, great groups of individually mature and emotionally secure citizens. We have come to believe that security in the adult is largely dependent upon how secure he was in infancy and earliest childhood. Apparently, we store up great reservoirs of security in our infancy if our relations with other people are favorable, and this storehouse provides a necessary defense against frustration. It allows the person to act positively, not negatively; responsibly, not irresponsibly; to reach out for opportunities rather than to shrink from them.

To many of us, the first implication of this knowledge we have acquired is that we must use it to rear succeeding generations of children who will be better and better able to function as positive, responsible citizens. Many of you are already devoting time and energy to this task. Through casework with families and children, foster care, children's clinics, children's institutions, day nurseries, public assistance and the insurances, all the great network of the public and private services that have been built up in this and other countries for the care and protection of children and their families, this knowledge is coming alive. Many of you are incorporating in your work the ideas and methods of dynamic psychology and are introducing the principles and practices of the nursery school wherever small children are gathered together in groups. Through these channels of yours, and through those of educators, health workers, and many civic groups, the dissemination of information for the assistance of parents in their important job of rearing new citizens

is going forward. Back of it is a great popular interest, a heartening sign in itself, and an urgent desire on the part of parents to help their children acquire the degree of physical, mental, and social well-being that we believe will do much to assure a better and more peaceful world.

But we must still face the fact that in our international relations we are dealing, not always with mature and responsible adults, but often with adults who, though insecure in their social and emotional development, must nevertheless make decisions and carry responsibility for the positions taken by their various governments, and, what is more important still, for their share in the world's welfare. What nations so badly need to sustain them, as they grope for a way to live and work together, are great numbers of people with large reserves of personal and group security with imagination, ingenuity, integrity, and wisdom. Some such leaders the world has, but they are too few. To create channels for their development is part of your job and mine.

Recent history has made us more conscious of close kinship among the peoples of the world. We are discovering that we share many needs and we search for ways to assure growth, new opportunity, and a greater degree of security and well-being for all people. One very practical way has already emerged—the sharing of the necessities of life and the pooling of knowledge and technical skills for rebuilding devastated countries, for creating new opportunities, and for bringing health and vigor into the lives of people. Here health workers and social workers must continue to join forces.

It is a commonplace to social workers that disease, hunger, and want corrode the capacities of human beings to get along well together. And get along we must, if we are to survive. But providing the necessities of life is only a first, emergency measure. It is when initiative asserts itself and the desire to restore and change is aroused, that constructive forces begin to act. I make these points because it seems to me that the work of the WHO is based on this composite philosophy.

The WHO, working with governments, in their efforts to raise health standards and to attack disease, uses as one of its most im-

portant tools of assistance the health demonstration, which may cover a period of one, two, or more years. This form of help may be related to any aspect of health or medical service, but at present, emphasis is given to the control of communicable diseases, such as malaria, tuberculosis, venereal disease, and to the organization of programs in the fields of child health, environmental sanitation, and nutrition. These six types of activity are at present the priorities established by the World Health Assembly, but they should be regarded only as important spearheads for further action in the interests of world health. At the present time the WHO is equipping itself to give assistance to governments in the administration of national health services and to demonstrate how local health services appropriate to different economic and social conditions can be organized and operated.

All WHO demonstrations are conducted on the grant-in-aid basis—not grants in money, which is the familiar pattern to social workers in the United States, but in personnel and program. The government seeking assistance and the WHO both participate in the provision of personnel for the demonstration teams, the government contributing local members, the WHO, international members. For example, a malaria-control demonstration team, which includes typically a medical officer of health, a sanitary engineer, an entomologist, and a nurse, may be composed of people brought together from different countries as far apart geographically as Italy, India, and Venezuela. These team members will, however, have one thing in common—they will all understand how to control malaria. But the cultures from which they have sprung, their mother tongues, their ways of working, may differ completely. The first job that the WHO has is to get them to work together as a team, get them to understand one another and their ways of work. But even this is considerably less complicated than the second job, which is to help them as a group to understand the people of the country and the community to which they are going, to understand that giving leadership in a project does not mean domination of the group, that an international team leader can be as effective—if not more effective—as adviser to a nationally directed project as if he

held all the authority of director. All this is essential if the team members are to be accepted by the people they are trying to serve, and if the new ideas involved in the program are to be incorporated into the ways of thinking and acting of the people.

Barriers to success of a health demonstration may be raised, for instance, by a variety of social and cultural taboos, or by lack of very simple information, such as elementary facts concerning venereal disease or tuberculosis; or why milk is a good food for children, and what substitutes can be used; or how DDT, sprayed on the inside walls of the houses, tents, or other enclosures where people sleep, kills mosquitoes that carry malaria.

This brings us squarely up against the fact that differences arising from social and cultural traditions must somehow be understood and coped with. Who or what is to bridge this gap? My own feeling—and I am not alone by any means in this—is that the cultural or social anthropologist can be of enormous assistance to social workers and health specialists at this point. Certainly it is apparent that much more research must be undertaken on existing patterns of cultural life, and how people from one culture can learn to adapt themselves to another, if we are to have the tools we need to do the job. Lest any of you feel that I speak only of the differences in cultural patterns between widely separated geographical areas, let me say that here in the United States more research in the social sciences, including cultural anthropology, is needed if the implications of the multiplicity of cultural differences that exist here are to be thoroughly understood and utilized effectively in our developing economic, political, and social life.

Culture is what a group of people have in common. We are born into a culture and profoundly influenced by it from birth. It supplies us with a way of thinking, believing, and feeling. It is a heritage of knowledge and behavior stored up by those who preceded us. It gives us meaning for the words we use and the way we express ourselves in language, art, music, dress. It supplies us with forms, customs, habits, and taboos which make large parts of life predictable and make it possible for us to live much of our life without thinking about what we are doing. And it supplies not only one of

the greatest barriers to world understanding, but, at the same time, it provides one of the most helpful clues as to how that understanding may be furthered.

It is in the very nature of culture that one is unable to be objective about one's own; that one assumes that one's own contains the most sensible forms of behavior, the most meaningful customs, the most logical taboos. Few countries, if any, have their roots in a single culture. In some the roots of present-day customs have grown deep for many centuries in the same soil. In others, the characteristics of many cultures are merged, or different cultural patterns exist side by side, blending in some respects, remaining distinct and identifiable in others.

The members of the National Conference of Social Work come from hundreds of different communities. With hundreds of others, these communities make up this nation. The cross section of the membership represents to a large extent the cross section of the nation's people, its hopes and desires. The cultural background, the present cultural pattern of each of the communities from which we come, varies enormously depending on the types or mixture of people that have settled in them. We are aware, at least to some extent, of the effect this mixture has had on our community and national life, on its weaknesses and strengths, on the rate and direction of growth of the nation, on its position in the family of nations. But increasingly we are becoming aware that we have not explored deeply enough the relation of the various cultural patterns of family and community life to the development of our children and to the stages of emotional and social maturity that they ultimately reach. This we need to do if we are to understand why we succeed so well in directions that call for high degrees of intelligence, curiosity, and ingenuity, and why we flounder so often or even fail in our human relations in the family or in the group.

In the United States it is not difficult to trace some of our dominant characteristics to the inherent forces that for three centuries caused selected groups of people to leave the lands of their fathers and venture across the oceans and mountains and prairies to build with one accord a new nation based on the concept of freedom and the dignity of the individual. Though more than three centuries

have passed since this trek began, and though many diverse customs and mores still exist in the United States and still influence the pattern of family life and group behavior, each decade sees the emergence of an increasingly uniform pattern of social behavior that is rooted basically in the people's concept of the rights of individuals. So convinced is the average citizen of the United States today of the rightness of this concept and of the reasonableness of his traditions and customs and ways of doing things, that he assumes blandly, perhaps thoughtlessly, that his culture is something the entire world would do well to embrace.

In spite of the fact that their ancestors came from many other lands, many people of the United States today do not understand the great differences of cultural belief and tradition that lie at the foundation of the social, economic, and political action and thought of other countries. And the reverse is true—the people of other countries have not understood the new cultural and social patterns that have been and still are being woven in the United States from the warp and woof of older cultures. And yet, if we are to progress toward our goal of international harmony, these differences must be understood and mutually accepted.

Dr. Clyde Kluckhohn says in his *Mirror for Man*:

Culture is like a map. Just as a map isn't the territory but an abstract representation of a particular area, so also a culture is an abstract description of trends toward uniformity in the words, deeds and artifacts of a human group. If a map is accurate and you can read it, you won't get lost; if you know culture, you will know your way around in the life of a society.¹

As any community organizer knows, one must have accurate foreknowledge of the groups who influence the conduct of a community's affairs if one wishes to interest the community in working toward a given objective. When the anthropologist talks about studying the caste and class structure and the group idea of status, he means the same thing. Who are the titular leaders of the groups? Who the actual leaders? Who must first be persuaded that killing mosquitoes will get rid of malaria? What are the customs and taboos about food, relations of the sexes, sacred ceremonies, birth, death,

¹ Clyde Kluckhohn, *Mirror for Man* (New York: Whittlesey House, 1949), p. 28.

illness? Are milk and milk products considered a basic part of the diet, as they are in the United States, or are they generally unknown, as they are in China? How can our scientific knowledge of nutrition be fitted into existing food habits with the least disturbance of custom? What taboos must be dealt with in educational methods? What principles of group dynamics can be used to help people solve their own problems?

As a rule, cultural anthropologists have devoted themselves to research, but a few have left their academic posts to explore the contribution that they could make to the problems of human relations by using their knowledge in administration or in service programs. So Dr. Alexander Leighton, in the Japanese Relocation Center at Poston, Arizona, brought to bear on serious social problems, involving the whole gamut of emotional reactions consequent upon evacuation and rehabilitation, a wealth of experience in social anthropology as well as in psychology and medicine. As administrative adviser he was able to change materially the administrative approach and break down barriers to understanding and to the communication of ideas arising when one cultural group must live in a situation of great stress, under the administrative control of people of very different cultural background. His report of this undertaking, published under the title *The Governing of Men*² is loaded with ideas and practical proposals for all administrators of large groups of people.

It is with a view to exploring local settings, orienting the experts in advance, and giving advice to them while they are on the job, that the WHO is now seeking the counsel of anthropologists and health educators. It is obvious that the health education aspects of any program must be built on the basic culture of the people to be served. In developing a malaria control project, for example, we have learned that the team must be on the spot several months before the malaria season begins. Though it increases the cost of the whole operation, ample time must be allowed not only to organize the scientific aspects of the work and gather supplies of DDT and sprayers, but also to lay the foundations of the health education pro-

² Alexander H. Leighton, *The Governing of Men* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1945).

gram with the people of the towns and villages. The customs of the people must be studied, and prejudices that may interfere with the action of the malaria control teams must be discovered and overcome.

No adviser or consultant can take the easy way of assuming that his or her way is completely right. Each must be alert to distinguish between the things that matter and the things that do not. One of the basic principles in any type of work with people constitutes a simple observation of human nature as true in international activities as in the most modern social casework office of any United States city; people do not like to be pushed around by those they consider to be outsiders. The greatest care has to be taken, in our task for world health, to stimulate and maintain a maximum degree of local cooperation and responsibility. Health, in its broadest sense, like happiness, cannot be given to people; they must create it for themselves.

A diagnostic look at the problems which obstruct the way toward general well-being for the world's peoples helps us to make a rough chart of priorities. As has often been said, hungry and needy people cannot realize their potentialities as human beings, nor fulfill their capacities for harmonious relationships. Basically, as those who have worked for the development of the social security and public assistance programs in this country know, economic problems must often be tackled before people are ready to solve their social problems. And the reverse is also true, as has been emphasized so recently by Alva Myrdal in connection with the expansion of the technical assistance program. "Economic changes," she has said, "must not be too rapidly pushed, lest they be detrimental to social values." As a matter of fact, it is now clearly recognized that economic development may be greatly impeded or even rendered impossible if the human values of health and welfare are ignored. The underlying reason for this is a simple fact: the world cannot ride to economic health on the backs of unhealthy people.

Acceptance of this basic principle has led to one of the most important developments in the WHO's program—its partnership with other United Nations organizations in the move to further economic development in underdeveloped countries. This newest

extension of dynamic group action has come about because, fortunately, the UN General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council, in approving the program known in the United States as the "Point Four Program," recognized that measures to stimulate economic progress must be preceded or accompanied by commensurate health measures.

Where an adequate program of public health does not exist or is not concurrently made available, economic development cannot long continue to move forward successfully. But set the stage for agricultural or industrial development by the introduction of measures for the elimination or proper control of disease and for the general promotion of the people's health, and the chances of economic development taking place effectively are enhanced enormously.

A man or woman whose health has been undermined by a chronic debilitating disease, such as malaria, hookworm, schistosomiasis, kala azar, beriberi, or who suffers periodically from some enteric condition such as dysentery, cannot do an effective day's work. Children who are chronically underfed or sick cannot grow or develop the physical or mental vigor or the social attitudes required of a mature person who must take his place as a leader or worker in one of the various activities of his community. Rid a fertile area of the often overwhelming hazard of malaria and people will spontaneously move in and be on hand to undertake the tasks in a scheme to expand food production.

The development of industry, a vital phase of economic development, brings with it many complicated hazards that deny a state of well-being to the men, women, and children involved. Evidence of this is to be found in the history of industrial development in Germany, in England, in the United States, and elsewhere. Not only do problems of industrial hygiene and of the physical health of the worker and his family emerge, but the hazards to mental health are legion. The adjustment for the individual from rural to urban living, a shift in the way of work, a new way of life which profoundly affects family and community structure and relationships—all these consequences are well known to, and understood by, social workers.

At the same time, we have the advantage of knowing that simul-

taneous attention to health and industrial development and to the general welfare of workers and their families can yield untold results in productiveness and satisfactory living. The story of the building of the Panama Canal, the health and medical care program which went hand in hand with the development of the project of the Tennessee Valley Authority—these are proof that aggressive steps toward the control of disease are sound economics.

Most of the nations enjoying relatively high standards of living today, as a result of their advanced economic development, have had to pay for this with a heavy toll in human misery. As industrialization progressed, people too often were treated as mere units of labor-power rather than as human beings. Children were exploited and given too little opportunity for education and health. The antagonism felt by men and women today in some parts of the world toward too rapid or excessive or badly planned development of industry in their own communities has its origin at least partly in the knowledge that this gross disparagement of human worth was, and in too many places still is, widespread in communities already industrialized.

But slums, overcrowding, lack of sunlight and fresh air in and around dwellings, need not result from building factories and power plants where there were none before. There is neither reason nor excuse for yesterday's errors to be repeated today. With the modern techniques at our disposal, it is possible, in a developing industrial or agricultural economy, to protect large masses of people against many of the grave dangers to health and happiness which have been associated in the past with such movements.

Throughout the underdeveloped areas of the world today there is untold suffering, and countless human lives are wasted because of disease which could be prevented by the introduction of relatively simple procedures that anyone can learn, provided certain facilities are available and existing customs modified. Hundreds of millions of people, on the other hand, are affected by diseases which can be controlled or prevented only by the application of techniques requiring a greater degree of professional training and skill. Hundreds of millions of people are without proper food. Most of these people passively accept their bondage to ill-health, either

because they have never known what it feels like to be healthy or because neither they nor their communities possess the knowledge and the technical or financial means to combat the diseases that hold them down. There is a vicious circle which must be broken by a partnership of action for international health with action for international economic development.

Such an attack on world-wide problems involves planning together by different organizations. Within the United Nations, it means that such organizations as the WHO and the Food and Agriculture Organization would work together to develop agricultural and health activities in a given area at the same time. It means that the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the International Labour Organisation, the Department of Social Affairs, and the WHO would work together on the problems of the handicapped; that the WHO would work with the International Bank, with the Department of Economic Affairs of the UN, where health services are required to further economic projects.

The existing collaboration of the WHO with other UN organs, including the Division of Social Activities and the International Children's Emergency Fund, and with such nongovernmental organizations as the World Federation of Mental Health and the International Union for Child Welfare bodes well for the future. Already there are a number of joint undertakings with the Division of Social Activities of the UN in respect to world-wide problems of juvenile delinquency, homeless children, rehabilitation of handicapped persons, and I look forward to collaboration in the near future on broad-gauge health demonstrations that will include also social work and education. For these and other reasons, I hope, too, there will soon develop active cooperation between the WHO and the International Conference of Social Work.

The possibilities for cooperative attack on health and social problems are limitless if the work can be based not only on experience in the scientific development of methods and techniques but on research that seeks solutions to our problems of human relations as well as new facts in the physical and biological world. Basically, our ineptness in dealing with differences and difficulties between

individuals and nations alike may be traced to our lack of knowledge and understanding of why human beings behave as they do toward each other; why some circumstances result in effective use of our normally aggressive characteristics, while others result in delinquency and disaster; why some individuals adapt themselves well to group action, while others do not; why two groups of people can differ in ideas and technology and yet work harmoniously with each other while other groups cannot; why two nations can live in harmony with each other, while others cannot. These are matters that require the combined attention of health and social workers and of the social scientists, including what Stuart Chase calls the Big Five, namely, anthropology, psychology, sociology, economics, and political science. I often think of what Edith Abbott said to me years ago: "Social work will not mature until it has a body of literature based on facts produced through scientific investigations." And it was Grace Abbott who taught me the value of the collection of social and economic data concurrently with health data if the full meaning of physiological or pathological phenomena is to be understood.

In social work, as in medicine, there has long been a period of preoccupation with specialization and perfection of techniques. Recently we have become increasingly conscious of our lack of knowledge of each other's specialties, of the need for more flexibility in the use and interchange of our techniques, for bringing together the various disciplines, for pooling our efforts, for identifying the common core of our training and experience.

For several decades medicine has been building the structure of its art more and more on scientific facts, but it has used largely those of biology, physiology, chemistry, and physics. Psychology and psychiatry have influenced profoundly the best practice of both medicine and social work, but neither medicine nor social work has given adequate attention to what the social sciences might contribute to the practice of these arts. Schools of social work are now giving attention to the enrichment of their curricula with material on cultural anthropology and sociology. In addition, however, research in the social sciences should be directed increasingly toward the operational fields of social work and health services to make pos-

sible advances and improvements in the procedures and techniques used to affect human relations.

Indicative of the trend in this direction is the work of the Russell Sage Foundation which is focusing attention on the contribution that research in the social sciences can make to social work. We are all interested, I am sure, in the current research in the Community Service Society of New York, directed toward the scientific measurement of movement in social casework. The Committee on Research and Statistics of the American Association of Social Workers has now the specific responsibility of "initiating activities leading toward closer cooperation of research workers in the social sciences and in social work." The *Social Work Journal* has just presented three prizes for the best articles on "The Contribution of the Human Sciences to Social Work Practice." The Social Work Research Group, recently formed, provides a medium of communication for social work research practitioners.

In the health field, there are similar activities aided by some of the great philanthropic foundations which are fostering the multi-discipline approach to the study of human relations, especially the growth and development of children. The United States Children's Bureau has issued a volume on current child research reporting some eighteen hundred investigations now going on. This is heartening. But still more facts are needed. Great potentialities for collaboration in research present themselves to social scientists and to health and social workers. No time should be wasted in pressing forward with such research, for from it may well come new knowledge of human relations that will have marked impact on the peace of mind of individuals and so on peace between nations.

There is indeed urgent need for the people of the world to go forward confidently in their search for new ways to secure international understanding and harmony based on the physical, mental, and social well-being of individuals and groups. In this search, we can all join, for we are, in a way peculiar to this nation, a part of the people of the world. And at heart we know that "man will yet win."

II. THE PRESCRIPTION FOR OUR NATION

By LESTER B. GRANGER

IN SPITE OF the comparatively modest wording of the theme of the 1950 National Conference of Social Work—"Opportunity, Security, Responsibility: Democracy's Objectives"—we should be warned that thorough discussion of even this subject is as ambitious an assignment as we could very well accept. For these outlined objectives of democracy are nothing more or less than the accepted responsibility of social work. They are the social goals which the people of the United States have tacitly agreed upon during the past twenty years of political activity for social reform—and social work is the organized response of the democratic community to those needs of its people which individuals and groups do not recognize sufficiently or in which they are unable to serve themselves effectively.

It is unfortunate that this "organized response" has been traditionally defined in popular opinion as service to the needs of the helpless and disadvantaged. Such a definition has affected the consideration given social work programs by legislative and public budget-making bodies; it has too often shaped the attitudes of supporters of voluntary programs, including members of community chest boards. And even social workers themselves have sometimes bowed in meek obeisance before the concept of social work as "little sister" to the unfortunate. Nor can our profession claim more than a share of credit for the partial revision that has been made of this concept. Social work leaders who have insisted upon such a redefinition have been more warmly supported by a political leadership and following than by the organized influence of social agencies throughout the country, including staffs as well as boards.

Nevertheless, such a redefinition is in process and has prepared the way for our consideration of the gripping social needs of Americans as they pass through the most dangerous period of readjustment and change ever experienced in our national history. The heavy challenge is thrown squarely before us to examine our pro-

fessional services and concepts and to make whatever alteration is required to fit the needs of the times. That, as I understand it, is the exhortation implied in our Conference theme. It is for us to define our current responsibility, to understand as we accept it, and accept as we understand it. But exhortation alone is only an exercise in oral gymnastics. To be effective, it must be accompanied by specific information and advice, by practical plan-making and action-taking. Understanding and acceptance of an altered responsibility will come, whether rapidly or slowly, only through a series of belabored discussion and processes involved in changing set attitudes of people.

Such a prospect of deliberate change in professional concept, and even more deliberate change in professional methodology, will undoubtedly make some of our membership unhappy, for these see a need for more drastic decisions more quickly applied than our Conference procedures have seemed to allow for in the past. There will be some comfort for them in realizing what is known to every veteran member of this Conference—that neither the concept nor the methodology of social work has ever been static in any period of our professional existence. Our Conference, in fact, has faithfully reflected changes in a dynamic society, even though the reflection has been on a mirror of inadequate proportions. Just as in other fields, social changes have been supported and resisted by disputant groups, arguments over their meaning have been furiously debated, and the resultant alterations in our field of work and our approach thereto have represented compromises between the disputant points of view.

Even at the risk of reciting familiar history, I wish to point out some of the different concerns with which social work has been occupied during our comparatively brief professional past. Our first concern, of course, was for the professionalization of what had originally been a spontaneous service directed by volunteer leadership, a service that was generally unplanned and frequently haphazard in development. Later came a deliberate formulation of general and particular administrative structures to carry on these professional services. Next was recognized the need for improvement, standardization, and refinement of professional skills. Then came

emphasis upon social work interpretation as a means of reaching the general public with an understanding of social work's importance as a distinctive service and of the need for its expansion and improvement. And in recent years we have sought to spread the areas covered by professional services and to organize agency programs to match that spread. All of this has happened within a stretch of seventy-five years. I offer this glance backward only to point up the fact that under the frequently placid surface of our Conference deliberations, changes are taking place that keep pace with the political and economic changes in American society as a whole. Beneath the surface, the current runs deep and swift.

It is, of course, true that not all our discussions have been placid nor finally resolved into complete agreement. In previous years there have been heated debates over categorical versus general relief, over the relative importance of institutional and foster home care for children, over casework in relief services, over the relationship of the public and voluntary programs. These earlier debates have their current counterparts in discussions regarding the confidential nature of casework records, the relief-certification of applicants for public works employment, and the administration and control of central social planning and fund-raising.

But while these discussions have been symptomatic of the lively sense of responsibility felt by social workers toward the improvement of their profession, they have, for the most part, concerned themselves with professional methods and responsibilities within professional areas. To the extent that this has been true, this narrow concentration of attention on technical detail has encouraged too large a proportion of our numbers to remain aloof from far more important questions about the nature and function of social work as a whole. The chief importance of this Conference theme is that it draws our attention back to the basic nature and larger function of our calling. We cannot discuss social work's responsibility at home and abroad for helping democracy to achieve its objectives of opportunity, security, and responsibility without raising subsidiary questions that shatter our preoccupation with the professional details of the job that we are doing.

What about the nature, as distinguished from the practice, of

social work? Are our services to be deftly palliative, or boldly remedial? Are we content to be the ambulance drivers, or shall we be peacemakers in the "cold war" between the general welfare and the self-destructive impulses of modern competitive society? As social workers and official spokesmen for our profession, shall we actively concern ourselves with the burning political issues of the day—in their partisan as well as their philosophical aspects? Can we fail to do so and still take up the challenge placed before us in today's great issues of freedom, security, international relations, and peace? To put the questions in one sentence: Are we handmaidens of the public interest, or partners in a great public enterprise?

If we really accept the Conference theme in good faith, there is only one answer that we can possibly make. We are partners, not mere handmaidens. The emphasis in a service profession must, of course, always be on service. But the quality of service needs reevaluation and whatever alteration the evaluation dictates. We continue our efforts to be the best possible profession but we recognize that only the best possible society will allow us to be the best possible profession—and we work for that best possible society. And we recognize, too, that only a free society can be that best possible one, that social work, as Leonard Mayo put it, "is indigenous to a free society and to that only."

We must face the fact that this concept of our nature and function will be resisted by a part of the general public, and even by some of our lay leaders and our regular supporters. This is to be expected as long as an ancient stereotype lingers, presenting the "social worker" as a bewildering composite of starry-eyed Lady Bountiful, grim-faced Comrade Commissar, and servile Jeeves, the Perfect Butler. And as long as any of our number justify in the least degree any part of this composite, there will be resistance even among ourselves to recognition of any new function. For that matter, even the concept of a free, democratic society is comparatively new in the world and not yet unfailingly accepted by our citizens. A little over a hundred years ago—a short time in which to measure philosophical developments—Americans spoke with exaltation of "personal liberty" under a "republican form of government," for these were new concepts in a world inured to autocratic and tyran-

nical power. There are some Americans today who have learned nothing since. Their physical existence is in the twentieth century, but their mental processes are stubbornly hooked in a late eighteenth-century philosophy. To them "personal liberty" and skeletal governmental forms are still the be-all and end-all of social existence.

For most of us, however, American democracy has replaced the American Republic and has been defined in terms of freedom rather than mere liberty. Liberty we regard as only release or escape from enforced constraint. But freedom we hold to be a release for constructive purposes, to enhance the ability of the liberated individual or group to live harmoniously with his fellows, develop full exercise of his talents by benefiting from his associations, and make his greatest possible contribution to the welfare and happiness of the society of which he is a part. Within this modern concept of freedom, man will continue to press on in quest of humankind's eternal spiritual and physical objectives—security, happiness, health, and self-respect. Sometimes, in our effort to simplify discussion and promote acceptance of these objectives, we carelessly lump them all together as the one major goal of peace. But peace is not an end in itself, though it is an essential to the attainment of man's furthermost objectives. As such, it cannot be enforced; it must be earnestly sought and deeply desired by the people. It can be secured only by man's determination to keep on the road to happiness and security, health, and self-respect. Social work can be—and if it is to fulfill its function, must be—a dynamic force in keeping man's progress along this road, in never allowing him to lose sight of his eventual objectives.

Such an interpretation of the responsibility of social work is a long step away from the original concept of our calling as an expression of the spirit of *noblesse oblige*. There was always "something strongly condescending" in that early concept, and faint traces of condescension must continue to linger as long as we concentrate on the needs of the disadvantaged to the exclusion of social and economic forces creating those needs. In fact, to the extent that we do continue so to concentrate, we cannot escape the charge—and justifying the charge—of being mere agents of palliation.

Our new concept, if we truly accept it, is based upon realization of a broad community self-interest and interdependence, of the inseparability of the social group from its members, and of the social community from its constituent groups. Once we have recognized this fundamental basis of our professional concern, we begin to emphasize the preventive and reconstructive rather than merely the palliative and correctional aspects of our professional and lay responsibility.

By its very nature, social work exerts a compelled interest in such areas as standards of living, the administration of government agencies for the protection of society, relationships between groups of people, and development of the personalities and talents of individuals within groups. But these initial decisions regarding our function immediately demand others in logical sequence. We cannot, for instance, lay claim to a professional interest in the standard of living without defining it in terms of a living wage for the American family. But we cannot take an interest in the living wage without somehow backing the wage earner in his struggle to achieve it. Any effective implementation of that interest will frequently propel us squarely into the midst of the never ending struggle between management and labor, an area which has historically been marked *verboten* for social work. We will then find our professional and lay leadership, whether or not as official spokesmen for agencies, testifying for or against legislation that affects the living wage. Our professional commitment will place us squarely and publicly opposed to elective and appointive officials when we find these officials clearly opposed to that public interest which we defend. Having a special stake of interest in the administration of governmental programs, and knowing that no welfare program can be soundly administered by incompetency or corruption in government, we will not hesitate to act upon our convictions, even though our action bring us upon the scene of open controversy. We oppose a malign force bearing against the general public security and welfare as promptly as we do a more tangible and direct threat to the individual health or welfare of our clients. We cannot discharge our responsibility to democracy when we shyly stand far from the conflict in which she is embroiled with her enemies.

Nor have we discharged our full responsibility merely by supporting self-labeled "liberal" causes against the forces of conservatism, or even reaction. Part of the danger to democracy lies not so much in lack of social change as in the directions taken by the proponents of what is sometimes miscalled liberal reform. Social workers, of course, are emotionally and occupationally motivated toward support of efforts at social reform. The kind of person who chooses our profession is most apt to be one who wishes to help improve the social conditions under which people live. His every professional experience serves to develop within him a conviction that basic social changes must be made if equal opportunity and protection are to be made as real in everyday life as they are implicit in the democratic concept. Social workers, therefore, are apt to shrink away from any position opposing a humane, seemingly liberal reform.

But that constitutional predilection toward liberalism has been, on occasion, our serious professional enemy and a deterrent of our support for democratic objectives. We too often display a tendency to make off-hand judgments regarding proposals that are offered piecemeal, without insisting on a look at the whole social program of which the proposals are only a part. Eveline Burns reminded us forcibly of this tendency in 1949 when she set forth the question of "How much social security can we afford?" The steady and gratifying development of a national program of social security cannot be endlessly continued, she pointed out, without making related decisions regarding the size and allocation of our Federal and state budgets. When we have increased allocations for one set of purposes we have decreased those for other purposes, unless we increase the budget. But when we increase the budget we have indirectly, but effectively, made decisions regarding the distribution of income—and possibly the level of production. A financial judgment regarding aid to dependent children, unemployment insurance, or veterans' benefits must be balanced against the interest of national defense, the European recovery program, or flood control and the development of public power.

Nor should it be only the matter of financial costs that determines our judgment of current "liberal" proposals. Some might

easily be self-liquidating, as would be the Administration's defeated plan for aid to cooperative home building. Others, like a federally administered, compulsory program of health insurance, may promise a financial saving for the average wage earner that would seem to justify an expanded budget. They are plans such as these that have the gaudiest appeal for the shopper for bits and parts of social reform; and some, under their bright wrappings, may be found to have real merit. But whether they have merit or not, whether they appear enticing or unattractive, it is unwise for social work to accept these parts without some fairly clear idea of the whole purchase, its nature, purpose, and cost.

As a matter of fact, the final shape and size of that total purchase have not yet been determined, even by those who offer parts of it to the American public. We have heard a great deal during the past year about the "welfare state," without having been told what it is, exactly. True, Republican stalwarts have furiously denounced it as an entrapment scheme aimed at the liberties of American citizens. And true, also, Democratic spokesmen have derided the opposition and extolled the worth of a "state of general welfare" which provides for the basic needs of people, through the intervention of government at points where those needs are underserved. But no responsible spokesman for the Administration has yet related this proposal to the Jeffersonian theory of personal freedom which the Democratic party claims to support. Nor have Republican critics scorned to set up straw men to knock down with great fanfare and drumbeating rather than answer the question of how to serve basic needs and retain personal freedom.

The general public has been fairly indifferent to the debate, with a possible subconscious awareness of its insincerity, but in some quarters it is considered professional treason for any social worker to set himself in opposition to the neo-New Deal program. In truth, is such opposition necessarily treasonable? Must the socially conscious lay or professional leader, in order to retain his "liberal franchise," automatically support proposals merely because they are offered by a "liberal" Administration and are backed by the more vociferous "liberal and labor" elements. I confess to some wry amusement over feeling compelled to propound this question, for

not fifteen years ago I was one of a group that prodded social workers for not being sufficiently sensitive to liberal developments throughout the nation. But if choice must be made between an honestly critical and searching conservatism and an unquestioning, partisan "liberalism," honesty and intelligence must always be chosen, in no matter what garb. Of course, no such choice need be made. Neither conservatism nor liberalism has any monopoly on the social virtues. Honesty and intelligence can reside in either field of philosophical inclination, and using the same democratic evaluator will arrive at the same judgment regarding the soundness of political proposals.

Many of us have been at state and other social work conferences where debates have been arranged between proponents of a national health insurance plan and its opponents representing organized medicine. Invariably, it has been clear where the sympathies of social work audiences have lain—with the proponents of health insurance. The unenlightened positions assumed by many spokesmen for the medical profession when the Administration's plan was first announced probably explains, in part, the attitude of so many social workers. And the plan has many arguments in its favor. Certainly, organized medicine has done a poor job in attempting to disprove the facts offered regarding the present inadequacy of medical and health facilities.

But proving the existence of a need is a long way from justifying a specific suggested remedy. Has our profession carefully scrutinized the health insurance proposal? Have we tested it for administrative soundness, as well as high social purpose—for freedom from political control, for its healthy effect upon the practice of medicine as well as medical care for the ill? Are these persnickety objections to be shrugged off impatiently? I think not. Let us stop and remember. Have social workers suffered so little from maladministration in public welfare, state and Federal, emergency and permanent, as to be entirely unimpressed by the dangers of corrupt politics, entangling red tape, and inept administration—dangers which are pointed to by the bill's critics? Must we marry the maid before asking if she can cook?

If I appear to be heated, I ask pardon. To dwell too long on any

one proposed program is to misplace my intended emphasis. It is not to any one or several proposals that I offer objection, but to a frame of mind in which our profession has so often received and considered them—or rather failed to consider them thoughtfully. I know that I am not alone in being excessively wearied by the glibly specious discussions of profound social and economic issues to which social workers are so frequently subjected, probably because of a shrewd calculation by their "salesmen" that as buyers we are "suckers" for a liberal label.

My point is that any set of proposals may be wise or unwise, may seem ideally conceived when viewed in isolation; but we cannot know its real values or dangers until we have established judgment on the whole program of which it is only a part. We cannot determine its actual merit until we have weighed it relatively against other values dear to us. This weighing is a wearisome procedure sometimes, but it must be carried on constantly nevertheless. We cannot expect our sociopolitical opinions to receive respect unless we demonstrate some perceptive awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of the society in which we live, and state clearly the kind of society we wish to create, or perpetuate. We cannot find our road until we have chosen our goal, definitely and irrevocably. It is the fumbling and seeming lack of direction in our efforts as an organized profession that are responsible for much of the light scorn with which "do-good social workers" are so often dismissed, as well as the disheartenment that grips so many of our younger, impatient colleagues. Many roads, it is true, can lead to the same goal, but only one goal determines the choice of a road.

How to discharge our responsibility to democracy? How to help keep democratic man on the road toward his goal? First, as I have said, by ourselves recognizing the highway and keeping resolutely therein. Further, by noting and understanding the direction and mileage markers as we approach and pass them. For instance, American agreement that an "economic floor" must be placed under human existence for the preservation of social standards is incidental to a soundly built but not necessarily a free society. It is our insistence upon an unlimited "ceiling of opportunity" that marks the difference between our own and a totalitarian society.

Restrictions on social or economic opportunity because of race, creed, or place of birth are false signs that have been allowed along the American highway and have misled many of us in our quest for democracy. We must tear those signs down. Another highway marker that points toward our goal is the conservation and maximum use of human and natural resources, with a concern in their use for the welfare of coming generations. We come closer toward our goal as we develop a growing sense of responsibility for promoting harmonious and cooperative community living. Thus we oppose with ardent courage such crudely un-American influences as the Ku Klux Klan, anti-Semitism, and anti-Catholicism, and move unhesitatingly to attack even tougher issues of personal and social freedom.

But these, some are probably thinking, are general responsibilities, not applicable solely to the social work profession. What are our special opportunities and challenges as board, volunteer, and staff members of social agencies, as workers who come every day in close, advisory contact with possibly twenty million people? Our opportunity stands out clear and exceptional: to encourage, stimulate, and guide the exercise of personal and mutual responsibility in a society where the tendency is to depersonalize relationships and to atrophy the sense of personal responsibility. Many phases of our governmental operations and community relations have become impersonal to a degree that warrants serious study. On more than one occasion I have stressed that everything that has happened to our national economy since 1930 has tended to increase the importance and power of large organizations and to decrease the influence and initiative of the individual.

Depression, war, postwar recovery—each phenomenon has accelerated the triple-headed growth of Big Business and Industry, Big Labor and Big Government, while decreasing the influence of the family, the school, and the church. Perhaps it was inevitable in the kind of society produced by the unplanned demands of modern living that Organized Bigness should have grown in power and spread in operation throughout our national life. Inevitable or not, such a growth is obviously sinister unless accompanied by an altered awareness and function on the part of the individual citizen.

The individual must be retaught and encouraged to use his personal initiative to an unprecedented extent, to develop his personal influence and combine with large groups of other citizens for purposes that promote the interests of people instead of merely those of organizations. And let us make no mistake about it, the interests of people and those of organizations of which they are a part may easily be antithetical.

Here, then, is that made-to-order job for the social worker, whether in casework, social group work, or community organization fields. Here is the job for the social agency, public or private, for any organizations and workers with special concern for people and special skill in implementing that concern. It is unimportant in this connection whether our concept of the ideal future is labeled "liberal" or "conservative." In either case our common intelligence will tell us that no society can remain free which creates forces more powerful than the people themselves. For verification, we need not look back to Nazi Germany with its Dachau and Buchenwald, nor across to Soviet Russia with its enslaved masses. We need look no farther than the Democratic or Republican political machines in some of our large cities; or the roughriding political machines in some of our large unions; or the brutal use of naked power by some of our industrial or business combines. From these we can have some inkling of what life can be like in a formerly free society whose people forget the elements of freedom and allow their control to slip into other hands.

Our responsibility to democracy? It is to learn and never forget its real meaning. It is to realize that opportunity, security, and responsibility are not slogans, but a way of life; not three separate goals, but one. It is to know that without opportunity for all there can be no real security for any, and that preservation of "opportunity unlimited" is the responsibility for all.

"Freedom is a thing that has no ending. It must be worked for. It must be defended."

The Economic Situation and Its Effects on Social Welfare Services

By EWAN CLAGUE

TODAY, well into the spring quarter of 1950, we find a general economic situation which is steadily improving. Coupled with the normal spring upturn in many lines of business activity is a significant revival from the mild recession of 1949. Many recent business indicators point to a continuing upward movement of the economy. In residential housing, 1950 has started off at the highest level in history. The month of March, with 110,000 starts, was the peak month of all time in this country. The quarter as a whole showed an increase over 1949 of about 100,000 starts. Other types of construction have also shown great strength during this year.

Statistics on inventories indicate that businessmen are beginning to rebuild them. It was the sharp decline in inventories which in effect constituted the recession in 1949. The rebuilding of inventories indicates a more hopeful outlook on the part of businessmen. Recent data also indicate that business concerns are raising their estimates as to probable capital investments during 1950.

All these business activities have their effect upon what is perhaps the most important series of all from a social point of view, namely, employment.

March, 1950, was the first month in over a year and a half to show a significant change in the employment situation. Total civilian employment in that month, according to the Bureau of the Census, totaled about 57,600,000, an increase of 600,000 from February. Gains in employment were recorded in agriculture, construction, trade, and many manufacturing industries. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports show an increase in manufacturing employment, particularly in the hard goods industries, including non-electrical machinery, machine tools, refrigerators, radios and tele-

vision, foundries, etc. This pickup reflected in part some seasonal increases that normally occur at this time of the year, in part some recovery from the strikes in February, and in part the general business revival.

Unemployment, likewise, decreased in March by 550,000, the first marked decrease since the unemployment figures began to climb in the fall of 1948. When the unemployment figures are adjusted for normal seasonal variations, the March decline in unemployment is doubly significant. Furthermore, reports from the Bureau of Employment Security show that the continued claims for unemployment insurance in the states declined by 400,000 from early March to early April.

The immediate short-run outlook seems equally favorable. Normally, April and May would show further declines in unemployment from the March level. If business continues to pick up, we should see some further reductions in the unemployment figures in these months. However, in June and July there may be a sharp rise again. These are the months in which the young people from the schools and the women from the homes enter the labor market, some of them seeking permanent jobs and others only temporary jobs over the summer. Because of the sharp increase in the labor supply in a comparatively few weeks' time, there are usually more entrants than can be absorbed quickly, although this depends to some extent upon seasonal factors at that time in agriculture and in industry.

The above analysis relates entirely to the short-run situation. Let us look a little more closely at some of the longer-run trends.

Employment and unemployment trends since 1948.—Between the fourth quarter of 1948 and the third quarter of 1949 total employment declined by more than 1,500,000 (seasonally adjusted), with almost all the reduction in manufacturing and transportation. In the same period, unemployment rose from a level of about 2,000,000 (seasonally adjusted) to about 3,375,000, or at an average rate of almost 200,000 per month.

Between mid-1949 and March, 1950, employment and business activity showed partial recovery in that total employment (seasonally adjusted) rose by 600,000 from the July, 1949, low. The effects of the steel and coal strikes slowed down the revival in the last quar-

ter of 1949 and in early 1950, but since February it has gathered new momentum.

With the continued growth of the labor force (at a rate of almost 1,000,000 annually, at present), unemployment (seasonally adjusted) has shown no net change between mid-1949 and March, 1950. There was, in fact, evidence of a slight rising trend of unemployment in the fall and winter of 1949, but this has been offset by the sharp pickup in hiring this spring.

However, unemployment at present levels still constitutes a serious problem for particular groups of workers and particular areas.

TABLE 1
INCREASE IN LONG-DURATION UNEMPLOYMENT

	March, 1950	March, 1949	March, 1948	Percent Change 1948-50
(in thousands)				
Seeking work 15-26 weeks	720	400	250	+188
Seeking work over 26 weeks	450	120	110	+309
Total	1,170	520	360	+225

TABLE 2
EXHAUSTIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION BENEFITS
1949, Fourth Quarter 1948, Fourth Quarter Percent Change, 1948-49
(in thousands)

590	240	+146
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TABLE 3
INCREASE IN GENERAL ASSISTANCE CASE LOAD

February, 1950	February, 1949	February, 1948	Percent Change 1948-50
634	461	392	+62

There is in these figures clear evidence that some workers are finding it more difficult to get jobs. There is as yet no evidence of a special group constituting a "hard core" of unemployed, but there is a sharp increase in those who have been out of work over twenty-six weeks. The same point is emphasized by the rise in exhaustions of unemployment compensation benefits. This means that increas-

ing numbers of workers have no protection through the unemployment insurance system. Finally, of course, this naturally leads to a rise in welfare needs. In my mind, it is doubtful if the full effect of this has yet been felt. Unless unemployment declines considerably more during the remainder of 1950, the welfare agencies may expect an increase in demands for their assistance.

There are certain problem groups in the working population. Youth has the highest unemployment rates, but the greatest relative increase in the incidence of unemployment has been among adult workers.

TABLE 4
INCIDENCE OF UNEMPLOYMENT BY AGE

	<i>Percent of the Labor Force Unemployed March, 1950</i>	<i>Percent of the Labor Force Unemployed March, 1948</i>	<i>Percent Change March, 1948- March, 1950</i>
Total 14 years and over	6.7	4.1	+63.4
14-24	10.8	8.6	+25.6
25-54	5.6	2.9	+93.1
55 years and over	6.2	3.2	+93.8

Another problem group is that of the nonwhites, among whom the incidence of unemployment is high.

TABLE 5
INCIDENCE OF UNEMPLOYMENT OF WHITES AND NONWHITES

	<i>Unemployment Rate March, 1950</i>	<i>Unemployment Rate March, 1948</i>	<i>Percent Change March, 1948-March, 1950</i>
Whites	6.2	3.8	+63.2
Nonwhites	11.4	6.5	+75.4

There has also been an increase in the number of areas with particularly high unemployment rates.¹

TABLE 6
NUMBER OF MAJOR LABOR MARKET AREAS

<i>Classification</i>	<i>January, 1950</i>	<i>January, 1949</i>
D (7-11.9% unemployed)	50	19
E (12% and over unemployed)	13	5

¹ Data from the Bureau of Employment Security.

Two thirds of the major "surplus" areas are in the North and East.

TABLE 7

"D" AND "E" MAJOR LABOR MARKET AREAS, JANUARY, 1950

New England and Middle Atlantic	27
North Central	13
South	12
West	10

In summary, we may say that the unemployment problem at this time is largely a question of determining who and where the unemployed are, and then deciding what, if anything, can be done about them. The central and significant position of unemployment insurance has surely been demonstrated during the past year and a half. Without doubt, the mildness of the 1949 recession was due in some small part to the unemployment insurance payments to families who otherwise would have been destitute. Furthermore, the worst effects of unemployment upon particular families and communities have been mitigated by this program. In other words, unemployment insurance has proved itself as a social security measure in a period of moderate business decline.

There are a number of still longer-run trends in the American economy which will be a matter of deep interest to social agencies. One of the most significant of these is the war and postwar baby boom which has given the nation a sharply increased population for the decade of the 1940s, an increase considerably higher than expected. During the decade of the 1930s, the total increase in the nation's population was less than 9,000,000. In the decade of the 1940s it seems likely to be more than twice that much. An increase in population immediately following a war is quite usual; what is surprising in 1950 is the length of time during which this increase has been continuing.

The baby boom.—Births in 1948 and 1949 totaled 3,700,000, only slightly below the 1947 peak of 3,900,000, and more than 50 percent above the 1935-39 average of 2,400,000. In both January and February of 1950 births continued at the same level as in the corresponding months of 1949. A sharp increase in the rates of sec-

ond, third, and even fourth births is a major factor in the continuation of the baby boom.

Marriages declined sharply from a peak of 2,300,000 in 1946 to 1,600,000 in 1949, but were still about 16 percent above the prewar (1935-39) level. The decline was inevitable in view of the depletion of the single population. However, the proportion of married women in the population has continued to rise in the past few years and is probably at a record level now.

The following table shows the numbers of births and marriages over the last fifteen years.

TABLE 8

ESTIMATED BIRTHS AND MARRIAGES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1935-49^a

Year	Births ^b		Marriages	
	Number (thousands)	Index (1935-39 = 100)	Number (thousands)	Index (1935-39 = 100)
1935-39 average	2,420	100.0	1,380	100.0
1940	2,560	105.8	1,600	115.9
1941	2,710	112.0	1,700	123.2
1942	3,000	124.0	1,770	128.3
1943	3,130	129.3	1,580	114.5
1944	2,970	122.7	1,450	105.1
1945	2,890	119.4	1,610	116.7
1946	3,460	143.0	2,290	165.9
1947	3,880	160.3	1,990	144.2
1948	3,720 ^c	153.7	1,800 ^c	130.4
1949	3,730 ^c	154.1	1,600 ^c	115.9

^a Source: Federal Security Agency, National Office of Vital Statistics.

^b Corrected for underregistration.

^c Provisional.

It will be noted that the decline in marriages over the last few years has not had a significant effect as yet upon the number of births. Further investigation of this fact brings out a most significant development: on the average, the families in recent years are becoming somewhat larger. In other words, the long-term down-trend in the average size of families has been interrupted. The following table shows the increase in births of a second, third, and higher order. Note, for example, that the number of first births declined from 45.1 in 1947 to 38.5 in 1948, but that there was a signifi-

can increase in second and third births in the same families. In fact, the ratio of these second and third births is now picking up to levels higher than in 1920.

TABLE 9

BIRTH RATES BY BIRTH ORDER PER 1,000 FEMALE POPULATION
15-44 YEARS OF AGE *

Birth Order	1948	1947	1946	1940	1930	1920
1	38.5	45.1	36.7	27.0	25.4	29.7
2	29.9	29.0	26.5	18.3	17.5	20.9
3	15.5	14.8	13.7	10.0	11.3	15.1
4	7.6	7.5	7.3	5.8	7.6	10.8
5	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.6	5.2	7.7
6 and 7	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2	6.6	9.5
8 and over	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.7	5.8	7.9
Total ^b	104.8	110.1	98.3	73.5	79.3	101.0

* Source: Federal Security Agency, National Office of Vital Statistics.

^b Includes births for which birth order was not reported.

This trend in population is producing some marked effects upon our schools, and we are still in the early stages of this development.

School and college enrollment trends.—High birth rates of 1946-50 may have created an "overcrowded generation," a group in the population who, as they go through life, will strain the capacity of social and economic facilities provided for smaller population cohorts. This may create or intensify frictions and give rise to personal maladjustments which call for the aid of social work agencies.

Elementary school enrollments, for instance, are due to increase from about 20,000,000 in 1949 to 27,000,000 in 1957, or 35 percent. In 1949, 75,000 new elementary school teachers were needed to provide for added enrollments and to replace teachers dying, retiring, or leaving the profession; only 25,000 teachers were trained. In 1954, 100,000 new teachers will be needed—four times the 1949 rate of training.

This, plus a developing shortage of school facilities, means overcrowded buildings, large classes (classes of 45 and 50 or more pupils per teacher are common), and a minimum of that personal attention to pupils which makes it possible to spot adjustment

problems early and prevent serious maladjustment or delinquency.

The higher age groups represented by high school and college students have not as yet been affected by the increasing birth rates of the past decade. However, these will be affected later on, the high schools by the middle 1950s and the colleges during the 1960s. In the meantime, however, another economic trend that bears watching by the social work profession is the increasing proportion of young people who are going to college.

College enrollments currently are 2,400,000 compared to 1,400,000 in 1940. The President's Commission on Higher Education has set as a goal—which may not be attained—4,600,000 young people enrolled in colleges and universities by 1960. This goal assumes that one third of the young people would complete four years of college.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics studies of employment trends and outlook in professional and administrative occupations, to which most college students aspire, suggest that there would be employment opportunities in these fields for only a part of the college graduates. Unless the others are given good vocational guidance which points to the likelihood that they may have to seek their careers in sales, clerical, or other fields, there is likely to be a great deal of disappointment and frustration on the part of these young people. In other words, unless a good job is done by educators and guidance people, the social work profession may have to help pick up the pieces.

On the positive side, the effect of the increase in college graduates will be salutary to the extent that a college education is put in its proper focus: as a preparation for living as well as for working.

We have already gone far from the days when the benefits of advanced education were considered the peculiar possession of a privileged handful. We still have a long way to travel, however, before there is general recognition that a college education can produce dividends in terms of a broadened horizon and of a fuller life, which are quite independent of its possible value as an "investment" in a future job career.

Older people and their problems.—At the upper end of the age scale the nation is now coming to grips with some trends which

have been operating over past decades. One in particular is the rising proportion of older people in the population. In the year 1900 only four persons in a hundred were 65 years of age. In 1950, when the Census completes its work, we shall probably find that this proportion has nearly been doubled. In actual numbers, the figures were 3,000,000 in the year 1900, and about 11,000,000 in 1950. The prospect is for further increases in this old age group, both in absolute numbers and also in the proportion of the total population.

This has brought us face to face with the problem of old age retirement for those who can no longer earn a living. Here we find the problem is accentuated by another trend, namely, the lessening possibility of work for people over 65. For example, in the year 1900 about two thirds of all the men over 65 expected to work for a living; only a third were in any kind of retirement. By 1940 only 43 percent of such men were in the labor force (and not all of them were employed). During the war the proportion of older men at work rose to about 50 percent, but by 1949 the ratio had fallen again to 46 percent. Furthermore, the long-run trend is downward, and this ratio will decline some more in future years.

In the meantime, the nation has devised a variety of ways of meeting this problem. We have old age assistance, Federal old age insurance, industrial pension plans, union pension plans, collective bargaining plans, life insurance annuities, private savings, and other traditional methods. I cannot here discuss this basic problem. It is necessary only to indicate the obvious fact that we have not yet worked out an integrated program that is at all satisfactory from either a social or an economic point of view. The Congress of the United States is now working on a major revision of the Federal Old Age and Survivors Insurance program. The situation should be somewhat better when they have completed the work, although much more will have to be done. In fact, on the domestic front this is one of the most critical problems which the American people face. Increasing public attention will undoubtedly be devoted to it during the next few years.

There is a second phase of this problem which also requires attention, although its critical stages will occur some years hence. That is the problem of the older working population—men and

women between the ages of 45 and 64. Many of you are familiar with the recent articles in the *Survey* on this subject by William Haber, of the University of Michigan, and myself. Further discussion of this point cannot be undertaken here.

There are many other problems on which I have not even touched. I think I can best sum them up by saying that our economy is becoming steadily more complex. This means that increasing proportions of our people have difficulty in adapting to life in this kind of a social order. Our production, our wealth, and our standard of living are increasing. The productivity of American industry, after some dislocation during the war, is on the upgrade again. The economic machine is working well. The problem which the nation has is that of assisting in the adjustment of all people so that the benefits of our marvelous productive economy can be widely distributed among all Americans.

Social agencies and social workers constitute one of the key groups in assisting in this adjustment. We shall find that even in the midst of business prosperity and high employment there will be a great deal of work for social workers to do. It will be to the nation's economic benefit to have such work done. Our fundamental goal must be to maintain the highest possible levels of production and employment, but we must also try to insure that all classes of people share in benefits which flow from that. I therefore urge that social workers study these basic economic trends in order that they may determine better just what the job is. I am sure they are going to find plenty of work to do.

Implications of an Expanded Social Insurance Program

By OSCAR C. POGGE

MOST SOCIAL LEGISLATION in the United States has been passed under the pressures engendered by economic disaster. In the past we have been very slow to move to prevent insecurity; we have preferred to do things in the old way until the problems associated with insecurity have forced themselves on our attention through mass unemployment, bread lines, and hunger marches.

It is a mark of greatly increased maturity that we have been engaged for the last few years in a nationwide study of our social insurance program looking toward its improvement during a period of high employment and prosperity. Our approach has been one of careful study and calm deliberation about the best way to handle a long-run problem before we are forced into panaceas by the pressure of disastrous events. This is excellent evidence that we are growing up and is cause for considerable optimism about the capacity of democratic capitalism to solve the difficult problem of economic insecurity.

The House Ways and Means Committee appointed a technical committee on social security back in 1945. The Senate Finance Committee followed with a citizens' Advisory Council in 1947. The Ways and Means Committee itself spent a large part of the last Congressional session sifting opinions and evidence on social security changes and in developing the bill which passed the House in the fall of 1949 as H.R. 6000.

Now, in 1950, we are nearing the end of the road. The Senate Finance Committee has completed hearings on this bill and has been working in executive session making the changes which it feels to be desirable. There remains consideration by the full Senate, the working out of differences between the Senate and House

versions in a conference committee, repassage by both Houses, and then signature by the President. It looks as if this legislation would be in effect by July 1, 1950.

No one can be sure what this legislation will finally look like in detail, but it will probably be quite similar to that passed by the House in the fall of 1949. Under H.R. 6000 coverage of the Federal social insurance program would be extended by adding 8,000,000 to 11,000,000 persons to the 35,000,000 workers now covered in an average week. Those who would be brought into the program include most of the urban self-employed—about 4,500,000 of them—many regularly employed domestic workers, employees of non-profit organizations, and, through voluntary compacts between the Federal and state governments, state and local government workers. Also included would be certain Federal employees not now covered by the civil service retirement system, some Americans working outside the United States, workers who process agricultural products, and a few others. The bill continues to exclude from coverage farmers, farm workers, certain self-employed professional groups, those covered by Federal retirement systems, some domestic workers, and members of the armed forces. The excluded groups number about 18,000,000. Thus it is probable that under the new legislation about 70 percent of the 63,000,000 in the nation's employed labor force will be under the Federal social insurance system.

For the newly covered persons and their families, coverage under the program will have a deep personal significance, especially for those who have been without systematic protection of any kind. Security is, in part, an attitude toward the future. It is not only freedom from want in the present, but the state of knowing that what one needs and wants will be available tomorrow or the next day. The promise of an income in old age or for the family on the death of the breadwinner will make an important current contribution to the happiness of those newly covered.

The House bill provides for the first time for payment of monthly insurance benefits to workers who become permanently and totally disabled before they reach age sixty-five. Obviously, the need for protection against this risk is as great as or even greater than the need for retirement or survivorship protection, for the disabled

worker not only loses his job income, but must be cared for as well. From an economic standpoint a permanent and total disability is the worst disaster that can strike a man. It is unpredictable for the individual and completely devastating. At present, general relief and the charity of family and friends are the only recourse of the permanently and totally disabled person. This addition to the Federal social insurance program may well stand out as the most significant of all the improvements which the bill provides.

Permanent and total disability insurance is the best way of introducing a flexible retirement age into the program. Without it there will always be strong pressures from special groups to reduce the general age of eligibility below sixty-five. With permanent and total disability insurance the worker forced to retire before sixty-five because of disability gets his benefits right away, but the system is protected from the huge expense which would result from lowering the age of eligibility for all.

Benefit amounts under H.R. 6000 would be greatly increased. Those already receiving benefits would get an increase averaging about 70 percent, and persons retiring a few years from now will, on the average, receive benefits about twice as large as they would under existing law. Under this bill, the much-discussed \$100-a-month retirement benefit will become an actuality for many persons. This would be the amount payable to an aged couple when the husband had been earning around \$225 a month from the beginning of the program. Survivors' payments would be correspondingly raised, with benefits for widows and children ranging up to as much as \$150 a month for the surviving family.

To finance the broadened insurance program, H.R. 6000 provides for a gradual increase in the contributions of covered employees and employers from the present 1.5 percent rate to a maximum of 3.25 percent each by 1970. These rates are calculated to be sufficient to assure that the program will be self-supporting.

What are the implications of this expanded social insurance program? What does it mean that we have been willing greatly to improve social insurance, not in a depression year, but in recognition of the role which social insurance has to play in a progressive and dynamic economy under conditions of an increasing standard of

living? What does it mean that we have chosen the way of expanded social insurance rather than some other method of social security, such as universal pensions or bigger and better means test programs? What too, are the implications for the future of the things we have as yet failed to do, the people still not covered by the program, and the risks against which protection has not yet been provided?

Our social insurance system had its beginnings in the great depression, and we have not yet fully understood its continuing role in a successful, progressive economy. Social security is needed in good times as well as bad, and it is needed as one of the tools which can be used to keep times good. An adequate system of unemployment insurance, for example, is one way of preventing a slowdown of business from developing into a depression. One of its great advantages in this respect is that a social insurance mechanism starts functioning automatically as it is needed. No one has to make a decision that the business cycle has started downward, a decision about which the experts are bound to disagree, and then, as a result of such a decision set up machinery to meet the threat of a depression. Rather, as unemployment starts to increase, an unemployment insurance system automatically pays more benefits at the very beginning of a downward trend—the time when the payments do the most good in maintaining a market for the products of industry. No one would claim that a social security program, including unemployment insurance, can by itself prevent depression. It is just one tool among many, but it is a tool we cannot afford to overlook. It is to be hoped that the Congress will shortly make needed changes in the unemployment insurance system as well as those in the old age and survivors program which I have described.

But even when there is no sign of slackening in economic production, social insurance has a continuing and important role to fulfill. There are always many unable to work because of old age or disability and there is a continuing need to supply income to widows and children. As long as we have a free and competitive economy there will be a continuing need for unemployment insurance.

One fact which has not been sufficiently emphasized is that progress in an economy of itself creates some insecurity. With progress,

old plants and equipment and whole industries become outmoded, and, during the constant readjustment, individuals suffer unless they are protected by adequate social security. Part of the costs of social insurance may be looked on as the price we must pay for change and progressive development.

The rapidly changing technology which we can expect in the next generation will be particularly handicapping to older workers. When an older worker loses a job because of changes in the methods of production, it is especially hard for him to learn the new way and to get the new job. We will need the combined efforts of industry, labor, and government to keep to a minimum the handicap which older workers suffer as the result of changing technology. We will also need old age insurance as a protection for those sixty-five and over who are unable to work or who find the handicap of changing technology too much for them.

The decision to retain and build upon social insurance as the basic social security method has now been made. It has been made on the insistence of our labor organizations, our business organizations, and on the advice of practically all citizen and expert groups. Before the Senate Finance Committee there were only two witnesses out of the total of 250 who indicated a preference for a basic reliance on a means test program. These two witnesses were Lewis Meriam, speaking for the Brookings Institution, and George McLain, head of the old age pressure group in California.

The invention of social insurance was an event of first-rate importance in the march toward the good society, and the decision to make it the basic security method in this country has far-reaching significance. There has not been much argument in recent years by responsible groups over the idea that we must free people from hunger and want and insecurity while we have the capacity to provide. The argument has been rather over how we are to accomplish the desired goal.

The use of social insurance means that each person will be helped to achieve his own security rather than have the necessities of life supplied by others; for social insurance is the device through which a person earns his security as he works, just as he earns his wages. Herein lies its superiority to either the means test approach or the

universal pension approach. Because the security derived from social insurance grows out of work and because in social insurance the earning of security is a by-product of having a job, we have woven the attainment of security into the warp and woof of our economic society. Social insurance is not a handout and it is not the giving to one group in a community by another group. It is rather a part of the reward for being a productive member of society, with both eligibility and amount of payment related to productivity.

By paying a premium while employed, the worker under social insurance assures his income for periods when he is nonproductive. In this way need is met but on an earned basis. We have recognized almost instinctively the importance of providing security in this way, the importance to economic incentives of distributing the goods and service of industry according to one's participation in production. Distribution according to how much one needs without any relation to production or contribution will always be necessary to some extent, but it should be kept to a minimum.

We have recognized equally the importance to the dignity and integrity of the individual that he have a chance to earn his security and not have to be the object of pity, of charity, of a handout; and we have recognized the importance to the long-run security of the individual that promised benefits grow out of production, that they be earned rights and therefore not subject to constant shifts in the political opinions and benevolence of others.

As stated by the Advisory Council to the Senate Finance Committee:

This protection should be made available on terms which reinforce the interest of the individual in helping himself. A properly designed social-security system will reinforce the drive of the individual toward greater production and greater efficiency, and will make for an environment conducive to the maximum of economic progress.

The Council favors as the foundation of the social-security system the method of contributory social insurance with benefits related to prior earnings and awarded without a needs test. Differential benefits based on a work record are a reward for productive effort and are consistent with general economic incentives, while the knowledge that benefits will be paid—irrespective of whether the individual is in need—supports and stimulates his drive to add his personal savings to the basic security

he has acquired through the insurance system. Under such a social insurance system, the individual earns a right to a benefit that is related to his contribution to production. This earned right is the best guaranty that he will receive the benefits promised and that they will not be conditioned on his accepting either scrutiny of his personal affairs or restrictions from which others are free.

Public-assistance payments from general tax funds to persons who are found to be in need have serious limitations as a way of maintaining family income. Our goal is, so far as possible, to prevent dependency through social insurance and thus greatly reduce the need for assistance.¹

H.R. 6000 constitutes the obvious first step in the development of a sounder social security program: extension of coverage, increased benefits, and an emphasis on the use of social insurance and a consequent reduction in the use of public assistance and relief. The adoption of this program would still, however, leave several long-range problems which must be solved before our social insurance program is really adequate.

1. Coverage must be made universal. We cannot expect the program to do the job unless everyone is under it. Farm people, for example, need this protection as much as anyone. As stated before the Senate Finance Committee by the representatives of the National Grange:

Farm people need this insurance protection for their old age and their families' future, and they have as great a right to it as any of the presently covered groups. They should not be singled out and put in the position of being the only major group which has no recourse to the insurance system; the only major group which has to rely upon the public assistance as its first and primary protection against these hazards.

2. Eligibility requirements for older workers should be made more liberal than in the House bill so that the social insurance program will mature more rapidly and fewer people will be forced to turn to assistance. The Advisory Council to the Senate Finance Committee in urging this point said:

In a contributory social insurance system, as in a private pension plan, workers already old when the program is started should have their past

¹ "Old-Age and Survivors Insurance," a report to the Senate Committee on Finance from the Advisory Council on Social Security, 80th Congress, 2d Session, Senate Document No. 149, p. 1.

service taken into account. The unavailability of records of past service prevents giving actual credits under old-age and survivors insurance for employment and wages before the coverage becomes effective, but eligibility requirements and the benefit formula can and should take prior service into account presumptively . . .

The House bill does not go far enough in this respect. Most newly covered workers, for example, will need a minimum of five years under the program before they become eligible for retirement benefits.

3. Security for the aged involves much more than an adequate old age insurance system. In fact, we have probably emphasized the retirement idea too much. The fact that old age and survivors insurance was established during the depression resulted in many persons looking on the program as a way of getting older workers to retire to make room for younger workers. Actually, there is now much evidence to indicate that older persons are better off if they continue to work at suitable jobs. Furthermore, the greatly increasing proportion of the aged in the population raises questions about the economic advisability of having so large a group nonproductive. It may well be that labor, industry, and government should make much more effort than has been made in the past toward increasing work opportunities for older persons. Perhaps, as time goes on, old age insurance will be thought of as being for the residual group who are disabled or truly too old to work. This is a large group. In a recent survey of beneficiaries under the old age and survivors insurance program, for example, we found that about two thirds were unable to work because of disability. Then, too, there are now about 3,500,000 persons over seventy-five, and only a few of this group are able to hold jobs.

4. A problem which always plagues social insurance is the long-range trend toward increasing prices and wages. The system starts out by collecting a given premium in return for a promise to pay a given dollar amount at some time in the future, frequently as long as thirty or forty years away. By the time the benefits come due, prices have increased to such an extent as to make the money payments completely inadequate, or wages have so increased in real value that a standard of living previously thought adequate is obviously outmoded.

We will have to find a way constantly to revise benefit amounts in social insurance to keep up with this upward trend in prices and wages. The Advisory Council, in its report on old age and survivors insurance, recommended that the contribution rate to be collected should be sufficient not to pay a given dollar amount in the future but to pay benefits which bear the same relation to wages in the future as the benefit amount written into the law bears to present wages. That is, they advocated a system of financing which would make it possible continuously to liberalize benefits to keep up with a long-range trend of increasing wages. The contribution schedule in H.R. 6000 does actually provide for such liberalization. As wages rise in the future, benefits can be increased and the costs still covered by the contribution schedule in the bill.

There remains the question of how to make automatic the desired adjustment of benefit amounts to changes in wage levels. We have proposed that this objective be accomplished by a benefit formula based on the wages earned in the highest five or ten years. Such a formula would go a long way toward keeping benefits in line with the long-range trend of increasing wages.

5. Ultimately, a decision must be made about the relation of social insurance benefits to other schemes. Some people now feel that the role of social insurance should be confined to supplying a basic minimum subsistence and that supplementary programs such as private employer pension plans and trade union welfare funds should be encouraged so that some workers will get more than the basic minimum. This, in general, has been the traditional position on social insurance.

Other persons are beginning to feel that the general government program should pay benefits that are significant for middle-income and higher-paid workers as well as subsistence benefits for the low-income person, so that the need for supplementation by private plans will be greatly reduced.

There has been growing evidence of late of the disadvantages of relying on private plans for a major part of old age security. Many observers have pointed out how these plans inhibit the mobility of labor, make it more difficult for older workers to get jobs, and that the promise of security they hold out may never be realized. These

observers feel that the government program with benefits geared to previous wages can do most of the job of providing old age security for most workers, that it can pay minimum subsistence benefits to persons who have been living near the subsistence level and at the same time pay higher benefits to semiskilled and skilled workers who have been earning and contributing more. The trade unions, incidentally, are among the strongest advocates of this position. This issue will be brought to a head as more and more private pension plans are developed through collective bargaining.

Although it does not solve all the problems, the passage of this far-reaching social insurance legislation in 1950 will, like the passage of the original act and the 1939 amendments, be a great step forward toward the good society. Security does not guarantee that people will be kinder, more peace-loving, more spiritual, more creative, or even necessarily that they will enjoy life. We do know, however, that the fear of insecurity is a corroding fear, that it is a fear which makes people envious and cruel and full of hatred. We know too that insecurity, economic or emotional, is a warping and an inhibiting thing, that far from being a spur to progress and creative effort it is a poison to individual personality and to society. As a result of the enactment of the social security amendments of 1950, we will make another great advance beyond the original legislation in the direction of making the United States a better place in which to live.

The Welfare State—a State of the General Welfare

By HUBERT H. HUMPHREY

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE face a crucial political decision. The issues relating to that decision are increasingly becoming clarified through the processes of free discussion.

Democracy is based on the principle that decisions by the community, whether they be political, economic, or social decisions, must be made by a majority of the people. The doctrine of majority rule is that which has traditionally distinguished democracy from all forms of totalitarianism, whether it be the totalitarian rule of George V or that of Stalin, Hitler, or Franco.

The doctrine of democratic majority rule is based on the premise of free discussion, competition of ideas in the market place of public opinion, and respect for political differences. With this atmosphere of freedom and exchange of ideas an intelligent electorate is prepared to exercise its decision-making role.

It is with this in mind that I welcome the opportunity to present the case for liberalism in American politics.

Those of us who associate ourselves with the liberal tradition in American politics are striving for an expansion of democratic life in the United States. We are trying to achieve a more perfect democracy in which the people through their government—the instrument they have created for working together—can build a constantly improving society. Our program is one for political democracy, social democracy, and economic democracy. We believe deeply in the proposition that the most effective answer to totalitarianism is more democracy.

Those who would criticize our principles accuse us of creating a welfare state. They raise the cry of socialism. In my opinion, the use of these slogans is an attempt to confuse the issues and to escape fac-

ing those issues. Intelligent political participation calls for us to raise the level of political discussion so that the issues rather than the slogans are discussed.

I would not deny that there is some merit to the claim that the Fair Deal program seeks the welfare state as an objective. The welfare state has been an American objective ever since the Constitution was adopted 150 years ago. We will recall that the Constitution charged the government with the responsibility to provide for the "general welfare" of the people. A state which is devoted to the welfare of its members, a state which works upon man and his welfare as an end in itself, is one I support, is one that is perfectly consistent with American traditions, and is one which I urge you to support.

We are moving into the second half of the twentieth century. Ours is a century which has seen America's productive strength grow beyond the dreams of even the most visionary of our fathers. Today we have the resources, the talent, the scientific knowledge, and the energy to establish a society in which man can enjoy the bountiful fruits of his labor without fear and insecurity.

For the first time in the world's history we have an opportunity to establish a society in which every family can have a decent standard of living and in which luxury living will be available for many. It can be a society in which all have enough without unduly limiting the rewards available for the more industrious and the more able.

A vivid demonstration that this end can be realized was given by President Truman in his messages to Congress when he said that by merely continuing our past rate of growth we can within five years increase our production 20 percent. By doing that we can increase the average family income by about \$1,000 a year. He pointed out that within the next fifty years we can triple our present standard of living. That would mean an average family income, in today's prices, of about \$12,000 a year.

Here is a vision we must never lose sight of. Yet just as our industrial society has created for us greater wealth, it has also created for us complexities which have frequently limited the availability of that wealth to vast numbers of American people. It submerged man by steel and cement cities, by thousand-acre factories, by ten-

thousand-acre farms, and by the paper corporations that control them. In the society of 150 years ago with our country new and our people few in number the need for economic freedom was not so important as it is today. There were vast rich resources crying for development. Economic opportunity was open to all.

Today, however, millions of families are dependent on jobs that may disappear tomorrow through no fault of their own. Millions of families, as social workers so well know, barely eke out bare subsistence as they live on tiny, worn-out farms which cannot produce decent livings even with the most industrious care. Today in this land of plenty and unequaled opportunity, today in this century of progress, there are still almost ten million families, or about a quarter of our population, earning less than \$2,000 a year.

Here, then, is the reason why we who associate ourselves with the liberal tradition ask your support for our Fair Deal program.

The vital program of American liberalism calls for a large number of reforms, of important, even basic changes on the face of our American society. There is nothing to fear in change. The very essence of growth calls for slow but steady change. Our faith in change is nothing more than the expression of our faith that man himself is going upward and that man and society can move ahead.

We have already moved far. We have seen men and women in this nation assemble in cooperative, free effort to improve their homes, their communities, their regions, and their nations. They have done so in cooperative effort with their government. They have used their government as their servant. They have recognized as Abraham Lincoln did in 1854 that "the purpose of government is to do for the people what they cannot do for themselves or cannot do so well for themselves." They welcomed, even at the very beginning of the founding of our republic, assistance for education; for wagon roads so that everyone, not only the rich, could travel easily; for canals and levees; for public buildings; for railroads. A total of 250,000,000 acres of land was granted by our government during those early days for various "welfare propositions."

Let us not forget the significant role played by the Homestead Act of 1862 in developing our nation and in bringing it to a posi-

tion of power and responsibility in the world. For those who were not able to make an adequate living in the industrial areas of the East, Congress gave away vast areas of public lands to individual families. Today the Federal Government no longer gives land grants. The modern expression of that program, however, is legislation in behalf of unemployment insurance and social security. Today the method of payment is changed. But—land or money, income-producing property or income—there is no change in principle.

The story of American history, of American growth, and American strength is the story of the people cooperating with their government for the "general welfare" of all. It is the story of Americans organizing to improve their life and their society.

The problems of democracy, however, are more than economic problems. They are frequently profound and troublesome psychological problems which arise from the society we have created. The American people today search for security in a society too big for them individually to control or to affect. In a society growing inhuman and impersonal, too big and too finely geared to consider the individual units who make up that society, the American people look for some guarantee that they will not be hurled unnoticed into poverty that they do not deserve and cannot conquer. Man is looking for something more than economic security, important as that is to his welfare. Man in mass society is looking for himself. He is trying to find himself, his importance, his relationship to the whole. Man is seeking his own personal world where he can live in a relationship with his fellow man which leaves him integrated and self-confident.

Those of us who associate ourselves with the liberal tradition in American politics believe as the very foundation stone of our principles in the importance and the integrity of each individual. The solution we seek for the problems of society are solutions which will preserve that individual integrity and confidence at the same time that we preserve the "general welfare."

To provide financial assistance for welfare programs has always been a part of America's tradition. Furthermore, I issue the challenge that it is an American tradition which even the opponents of

the welfare state want to preserve. The only question which remains an issue is the question of "whose welfare."

As early as 1791, Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton—the symbol of conservatism—made a plea before the House of Representatives for Federal subsidies to manufacturers.

During the nineteenth century the United States Government gave to the railroads a total of 179,000,000 acres of land.

At this very moment the Reconstruction Finance Corporation and the Export-Import Bank assist private industry financially. I suggest that Guy Gabrielson, himself one of the leading exponents of reaction in America and spokesman for the Republican party, is in favor of continuing that form of government subsidy since the Carthage Hydrocol Corporation, which he heads, has received more than \$18,000,000 in loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation.

In this connection I have one further observation to make. I am a member of the Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee. In our committee is a bill to raise postal rates. The same magazine and newspaper publishers who daily attack the Fair Deal as a welfare state and oppose government subsidies for the American people are daily in my office and before our committee, insisting that the government postal subsidy to their business be maintained. In 1949 the newspaper and magazine publishers of America received a subsidy upward to \$200,000,000.

Many of these government subsidies to business are desirable. But if they are desirable to help profits, they are desirable to help people! Those of us who would advance proposals for welfare legislation do so because we are striving for a more perfect democracy in which the American people through their government can build a constantly improving society. There are some who feel that the realization of the dream which is before our eyes cannot be achieved without sacrificing the free enterprise system—and they prefer the free enterprise system.

They are of little faith. I believe in the free enterprise system. I am not a socialist. No other system could have made the progress we have made in the past 150 years. But the free enterprise system in America as we have seen it has always been one receiving encourage-

ment, stimulation, and protection from government activity, from government welfare programs.

Let us not forget that the protective tariff, the darling of big business for so many years, was one of the most flagrant examples of government interference in behalf of business. The greatest threat to the free enterprise system in America is not social security, minimum wage, aid to education, rural electrical programs, and the like. The greatest threat to free enterprise in America is growing monopoly in America.

There are those who would have us believe that an unbalanced budget spells the end of free enterprise in America. That is nonsense. I am more concerned about the fact that the Federal Trade Commission recently reported to Congress another half a dozen industries which are dominated by four to six companies making a total of nineteen highly concentrated industries out of twenty-six studied. I am more concerned that three companies control 95.3 percent of the tin can and other tinware industry; that three companies control 92.1 percent of the linoleum industry; that another three companies control 88.5 percent of the copper smelting and refining industry. Anaconda Copper alone controls almost half the capital assets of the whole industry, and another quarter of the capital assets of the copper industry is controlled by Kennecott Copper Corporation. I am concerned about the future of the free enterprise system when I learn from the Federal Trade Commission reports that 113 companies, all with assets of more than \$100,000,000, own almost half of the manufacturing plants and equipment in the whole of our United States.

In this context it is wise to look at some additional facts. In 1947 the House Small Business Committee found that 200 nonfinancial corporations owned more than half of the assets of all nonfinancial corporations in this nation. This study followed the famous report of the government's temporary National Economic Committee which showed that about one third of all the goods we produce was made by companies which had only three or fewer serious competitors.

The free enterprise system is in danger, but the danger does not arise from welfare programs. The danger arises from the fact that

from 1940 through 1948, according to the Federal Trade Commission, more than 2,450 formerly independent firms in the manufacturing and mining industries alone disappeared as a result of mergers and acquisitions. The asset value of these firms amounted to about \$5,200,000,000, or nearly 5 percent of the total asset value of the manufacturing corporations in America. Moreover, nearly one third of the companies merged was absorbed by the very largest corporations, those with assets exceeding \$50,000,000.

It is monopoly which threatens a free America. I do not consider unbalanced budgets to be desirable objectives. Unbalanced national budgets, however, are no indication of the basic health of the American economy. The Republicans would balance the budget, but they would do so, I suggest, at the expense of unbalancing the American economy. I remember well the days of the balanced budget under Ogden Mills, Andrew Mellon, and Herbert Hoover, and I remember that those balanced budgets spelled unbalanced family life for millions of Americans. I am more concerned with balancing the daily lives of Americans and their families so that they have full employment; so that they can enjoy the fruits of their labor; so that they can participate in the good life which is possible in our society.

If the Republican party should succeed in its program of opposition to social welfare legislation, if it should succeed in its efforts to curtail government expenditures at the expense of the middle- and low-income families of America, if it continues to advocate a "favor-the-rich" tax program such as the one it enacted when it was in power during the 80th Congress and which, incidentally, was primarily responsible for the unbalanced budget of the last two years —the Republican party will be the threat to free enterprise in America.

I recall the prophetic vision of Theodore Roosevelt when he said, "If socialism ever comes to America the Republican party will bring it."

I realize this sounds like a facetious statement to many, but to me the only real safeguard for America, its freedoms, and its economy is a welfare program for America—a state which is concerned with real protection of free enterprise to the point of controlling

monopoly, and a state which protects the American citizens from being governed by private corporations. We must have a government which wants to raise the standard of living for everyone, not just increase the wealth of the industrialists and financiers. We must have recognition of a man's right to work at a living wage.

In the dark days of 1938 President Franklin Delano Roosevelt warned the American people. He said:

Democracy has disappeared in several other great nations, not because the people of those nations disliked democracy, but because they had grown tired of unemployment and insecurity. . . . In desperation they chose to sacrifice liberty in the hope of getting something to eat. We in America know that our democratic institutions can be preserved and made to work. But in order to preserve them we need . . . to prove that the practical operation of democratic government is equal to the task of protecting the security of the people.

Yes, this program and these principles which I state have international implications as well. America must prove to the peoples of the world that political democracy and political freedom are not synonymous, as the Communists would have them believe, with industrial anarchy, growing unemployment, and the monopoly state. American democracy must prove that political freedom and political democracy can bring about an economy which is a healthy economy, one which is concerned for the welfare of the people. In fact, political democracy and economic oligarchy are incompatible, and there can be no lasting political freedoms so long as economic control is in the hands of the few and so long as economic security is missing from our society.

The philosophy of the welfare state aims to satisfy at least four major objectives:

1. A comprehensive social insurance program including insurance and provisions against the hazards of old age, disability, unemployment, and costs of medical care. The giant social security system is a striking example of cooperation on a national scale to do for ourselves together what we each cannot do alone.

2. Prevention or mitigation of unemployment through public works planning and monetary and fiscal policies

3. Improvement of the standard of living through such programs

as slum clearance and public housing and by providing better facilities and opportunities for education

4. Limitations on the growth of powerful corporate enterprise with a view to protecting the interests of small business firms and less privileged elements within our society

The Tennessee Valley Authority stands out as an example of what we can accomplish. The immediate objective was the prosperity and the economy of the river valley. People of the Tennessee Valley in cooperation with their government changed that valley from desert to prosperity. That miracle was partly one of science, but we are concerned more with the miracle of political and democratic organization which enabled the people along the banks of the Tennessee to marshal the wisdom of science and the wealth of their resources for the benefit of all. It is in that tradition that we today advocate a Missouri Valley Authority, a Columbia Valley Authority, and a St. Lawrence Seaway.

There is little new that we are proposing in our Fair Deal program. It is not new to erase slums—slums which are the birthplace of diseased minds and bodies, the centers of juvenile delinquency, of fire and fever. It is nothing new to replace them with respectable and decent living quarters. We did that under the Housing Act of 1938. Yet that act was called socialist and was damned by the same people who successfully killed the cooperative housing features of the middle-income housing bill.

We built houses under the Housing Act of 1938. We still have democracy. We still have freedom. In fact, we have more democracy and more freedom.

Six million American families live in the slums today. How much do our cities pay for police services? How much for fire protection? Our cities spend a surprising sum of money for police and fire and social welfare work in the slums that would not be necessary if those American citizens lived in decent houses. In Atlanta, for instance, slum areas paid 5.5 percent of the real estate taxes and got back 53 percent of the police, fire, public health, and social work funds spent in the city. The United States Conference of Mayors reported on one city's survey that showed just what I have in mind: One third of the people live in slums and blighted areas. They suffer

from half of the disease in the city and they have 35 percent of the fires. They receive 45 percent of the city's services, and pay only 6 percent of the real estate taxes. Forty-five percent of the major crimes are committed by the men and women who live in these slums, and 55 percent of the juvenile delinquents come from out of this rotten growth that betrays our heritage.

Here are just a few illustrations of the kind of objective which the Fair Deal Program has in mind. Some may wish to call this the welfare state. The label does not matter. Its objective is human welfare. The methods used to obtain that objective are democratic and are based on public acceptance, public education, and the expression of public will.

The issue of the welfare state brings a vision to my mind. This vision symbolizes the choice which the American people face. On the one hand are those who would judge America and its accomplishments in terms of balance sheets and accounting records. On the other hand are those who judge America by its concrete accomplishments and by the happiness of its people. Those who oppose the welfare state remind me of the frightened men totting up their balances while the American people continue to go forward, build dams and houses and electric and telephone lines.

In conclusion, I make a plea for a rational rather than an emotional approach to the problems of government. I make a plea that we respect the facts.

It is difficult for the American people to understand when Alfred P. Sloan, Jr., head of the board of General Motors, makes a statement on January 15, 1950: "In recent years economic incentive has been weakened by the ever increasing take of government. I fear the effect is beginning to be felt on the economy." And then General Motors announces that it had earned profits of \$600,000,000 in 1949—more than any other company has ever made in the history of American industry. I suggest this is not a rational approach to discussing political issues.

Since the war American big business, according to the Federal Trade Commission, has been making a profit of approximately 20 percent on its invested capital after taxes. This compares with about half that figure before the war.

If our political opponents wish to label the program we stand for as a "welfare state," then let it be so. Call it what you will, one fact, however, stands out in bold relief. This program has raised the living standards of American people. It has given a modicum of security to all areas of our population. It has provided a floor on living standards. It is furnishing relief from the apprehensions and anxieties which lead men to surrender their freedom. It is providing minimum protection against the hazards of old age and unemployment. It will provide prevention from catastrophe of sickness and disease. It is giving decent shelter to more and more of our people. It is putting a floor under wages. It will provide Federal aid to education so as to give every boy and girl equal educational opportunities so that none will remain the slaves of ignorance.

These programs are strengthening the ring of freedom that centuries of struggle has drawn around Western man. These programs are providing the incentive and will set the example which will undermine totalitarianism wherever it may be.

Security for Children and Youth

By LEONARD W. MAYO

THE MEANING AND IMPLICATION of the word "security" have both broadened and deepened in the last quarter of a century; once largely economic in its connotation it now has a totality of concept which reflects our increased knowledge of behavior and our concern for the whole person as affected by and as affecting the environment of which he is a part. It has acquired a new meaning as we have come to understand what Dr. J. Milton Senn has referred to as the "indivisibility of man," and as we have realized that economic wants, physical needs, social drives, and spiritual yearnings cannot be regarded as separate and apart.

We know that the secure person has a serenity, an inner poise, and an assurance that is more than skin deep. We know him as a civilized human being in full possession of his powers and as one who has come to terms with himself. We sense that security is the product of a harmonious relationship between the forces and demands that impinge upon us from without and the resources of a well-integrated personality controlled from within. Just as peace is more than the absence of war, so security in the individual is more than a lack of devastating conflict. It is a dynamic state, not a passive one, and it derives from something deeper than the satisfying of elemental and material needs.

Because it has many aspects, security requires many but related approaches. As a people we understood the meaning of "all-out war" during the days of the last world conflict. We have not yet fully grasped, however, that the building of the kind of world wherein people may seek and find security also requires an all-out effort. It is a task for all the people; for parents, teachers, social workers, clergymen, and public officials. While we cannot hope to reach perfection in an imperfect universe, and while security for

mature and reasonably healthy adults must always be regarded as a goal to be reached largely through their own well-disciplined efforts, the problem of security for children and youth is substantially different.

For every single thing that a child or young person can and should do for himself better to establish his own and the community's security, there are at least a dozen which adult society must do for him. A child cannot remake an inadequate school system, organize a public health program, or provide a needed agency. Youth cannot push back unaided the frontiers of medical knowledge or unseat a dishonest public official. The job of adults, in a world which is a child's world quite as much as if not more than an adult's, is to remove the hazards to security, set the stage, and help to create the climate within which children and youth may seek their own security on a somewhere near equitable basis.

If, as adults, we are tempted to lay upon our children a greater burden than they can or should bear in this matter, and if we feel to the slightest degree superior about our own security, we will do well to realize that a very thin veneer indeed separates many of us from the confident person we think we are and the insecure person we may actually be. "There but for the grace of God," cried John Wesley, "go I."

Hence you and I have a responsibility to ourselves, to all people in our communities, to the nation, and, in so far as we can help to the slightest degree, to the world in bringing about in innumerable ways a state and a condition within which human beings may better find that inner security which all of us so earnestly seek. We know there is no single answer, no patented or neat solution, but that the search will take us up the long, hard, tortuous road that leads to the ultimate fulfillment of the promise of democracy. In so far as children are concerned, Lester Granger put it succinctly and well when he said, "All children want is to be safe and to play." It is just as simple and just as complex as that.

The year 1950 affords an excellent vantage point from which, like Janus, the god with opposite faces, we may look backward to the turn of the century and ahead to the year 2000 A.D. What of significance have we accomplished in the last fifty years in making

the lot of children and youth more secure? What is required of us in the next half century if we are to make additional and urgently needed gains?

Economic aspects and family stability.—From the economic point of view the record shows clearly that although the cost of living has increased many-fold since 1900, our national production has skyrocketed and our annual income is vastly higher. As a result, a larger proportion of families is on a more satisfactory economic basis than was true at the turn of the century. There are approximately 48,000,000 families in the United States. Five years ago 56 percent of those with one child and the same percentage of families with two children had annual incomes of less than \$3,000, while over 70 percent of those with four or more children had incomes well under this amount. Three years ago nearly one half of the total money income of the nation went to families in the highest fifth of the income groups. The two lowest fifths of the income groups together received about one seventh of the total money income. In 1947, when the cost of living rose 15 percent, nearly 30 percent of our families received no increase in money income, and 20 percent suffered an actual decline.

These figures, quoted in part from a report made to the National Commission on Children and Youth in 1949 by Katherine Lenroot, Chief of the United States Children's Bureau, were accompanied by a note of caution, which is repeated here in substance and emphasized: no set of obtainable figures on the income and general economic status of our families can possibly portray accurately the variations and range of situations that obtain at a given time. The over-all picture, however, is doubtless an improvement over fifty years ago. It is true, nevertheless, that even the best figures fall short of depicting the wide, individual differences that always exist. Thousands of migrant and farm tenant families and many of our Latin-American, Negro, and Indian families are impoverished. Their children, too, are future citizens and represent responsibilities we cannot evade. Nor do we need go far afield from the communities in which we live to find examples of families which require special and skillful attention.

Wide differences exist as well among states and regions of the

country and, in general, the areas that are the richest in children are relatively poor in income. As a result, thousands of young children work long hours at tasks beyond their strength, and 4,000,000 mothers work outside their homes. It is conservatively estimated, furthermore, that over 3,000,000 families live in houses that are decidedly substandard.

Divorce and other major disruptions of home life continue to threaten the security of children. It is generally claimed that for the last few years there have been substantially more divorces than at the beginning of the century. While some of the figures purporting to show increases in divorce are obviously inaccurate, it is true that the present rate is sufficient to give us pause, particularly since there are currently 6,000,000 children in the country who are members of families which have been disrupted by divorce, death, or desertion. In addition, 100,000 children were born out of wedlock in 1949.

Health.—The health of our people has substantially improved in the last fifty years. The average life span is longer; maternal and infant death rates are down; the number of diseases that constitute a serious threat to the lives of children has decreased; sanitation has improved; public health programs have become as much a part of many communities as public schools; hospitals have increased in number and progressed in professional competence; the miracle drugs, new operating procedures, extensive medical research, and improved medical training have almost revolutionized the general health setting into which the child of 1950 is born.

In spite of these gains, our experience in the second World War saw one eighteen-year-old young man in every four rejected by the Selective Service, many for readily correctible physical causes. Although 1948 marked the lowest infant mortality rate in our history (thirty-two deaths in every 1,000 births during the first year of life), in one state the rate was one death in every ten during the first year of life.

In the wealthiest nation of the world, over 100,000 children are born each year without benefit of medical care, and the National Health Survey reported more than 1,900,000 children under fifteen suffering from a chronic disease or impairment. Some 1,200 counties have no public health department, or none worthy of the

name, and our rural areas in general reveal a shocking lack of health facilities and services. With all our resources and research, and in spite of a widespread awareness among our people as to the causes and treatment of disease and ways of maintaining health, the United States is not yet the healthiest nation in the world. At least five and perhaps seven countries still surpass us in this respect.

Education and recreation.—As every informed citizen knows, the progress made in education in the last half century has been phenomenal. The further progress needed, however, will be greatly augmented if we become as conscious of the gaps as we are of the gains in this aspect of child life and development. Omitting any reference to the differences of opinion that exist as to whether our prevailing philosophy of education is sound, we know that in other basic respects we face highly serious problems.

The extensive survey of elementary and secondary schools made in January, 1950, by the *New York Times* shows that in spite of increased enrollment, large numbers of "substandard and emergency" teachers are being entrusted with schoolroom responsibilities that they are ill equipped to carry. In one state one eighth of the entire teaching force in elementary and secondary schools falls into these categories; in another, one seventh; and in still another, fully 50 percent of the teachers are "substandard or emergency" appointments. In one state nearly 1,000 teachers out of a total of 16,000 have not completed secondary school. Finally, while improvements in teachers' salaries have been made in the last five years in most parts of the country, there is still a long way to go, as implied by the foregoing statistics.

The *Times* survey reports five basic needs in our elementary and secondary school program, as seen through the eyes of the educators themselves:

1. More and better prepared schoolteachers on both the elementary and secondary level
2. Additional buildings, equipment, and supplies
3. Reorganization of school districts to eliminate the small and inefficient units
4. A better and improved curriculum, particularly for high schools

In the South alone, the survey states, the leading educators estimate conservatively that this year more than a million boys and girls will receive an impaired education. The situation in certain other parts of the country is equally serious in comparison, when one takes the per capita income and the economic picture of each state into consideration. The most conservative citizen must admit that the tax base in many states is presently insufficient to sustain education at a decent, let alone a respectable, level. The mere broadening of the base of educational support need not necessarily mean the loss of local administrative control of educational affairs unless local citizens entirely abandon their responsibilities.

Also of importance to the security of children and youth are adequate opportunities for healthful and wholesome recreation and constructive leisure-time pursuits. There is no way of accurately measuring our gains and gaps in this field. We know, however, that playgrounds, recreation facilities, and personnel have substantially increased and that public attitudes toward recreation and our philosophy as a nation concerning the necessity for recreation for all age groups have greatly broadened in the last half century. Large areas of the country, however, including portions of our largest and wealthiest cities, are still far from adequately served.

Mental health.—When all the factors generally agreed upon as directly influencing the security of children are weighed, there is wide agreement that emotional stability and sound mental health are among the most decisive. It is sobering, therefore, to realize that the mental health of our entire population is a matter of concern. Over half the patients in our hospitals on a given day—some 600,000—are suffering from some form of mental illness. Each year, 150,000 persons are committed to mental hospitals, a substantial percentage of them children under eighteen years of age.

Dr. Karl Menninger, of the Menninger Foundation of Topeka, Kansas, stated recently in New York City that a million children suffer from behavior disorders and that fully 50 percent of physical illness results from emotional conflict. Between 250,000 and 400,000 children under eighteen appear in our juvenile courts each year, another indication of inadequate homes and communities resulting in emotional and behavior disturbances.

It should be borne in mind that while an estimated \$10,000,000,000 were spent in 1949 for health and welfare purposes (\$8,000,000,000 in tax funds), that total is less than 6 percent of the personal income of our people. As long as 80 percent of our Federal expenditures, furthermore, are devoted to defense and to meeting the cost of past wars, we will continue to be restricted in spending the public funds essential to the proper conservation of family and child life.

How does all this add up? How much better off than the child born in 1900 is the youngster who first sees the light of day in 1950? Certainly, the 1950 baby has a much greater chance of surviving the first year of life and of living to a ripe old age. His parents have a better education and a deeper understanding of his physical and psychological needs. He will live in a better house, although perhaps in a congested neighborhood, and he is far less likely to live in a slum than was the child born in 1900. His formal education will be superior and his chances of going to college will be enhanced. His opportunities for finding a job will be wider, and the probability of his marrying and raising a family in decent surroundings and under adequate health conditions is considerably greater. Children who are members of minority groups and those born with mental and physical handicaps find themselves in a far better situation today than was true in 1900.

The 1950 child, however, faces a more complex and demanding society than did his elders. His chances of contracting mental illness are higher, and the physical and mental hazards facing him as he approaches middle life are many. If one of the main criteria of real security is a national mental and emotional stability, we still have a long way to go.

Our present mandate may be stated as follows: What can the United States do in the next decade substantially to improve the basic security of its 50,000,000 children? How serious are we about it? Is it an operable assignment? The last question is the easiest. It is an operable assignment, though admittedly a huge one, if we are willing to put first things first, mobilize our resources, and make the necessary financial and other sacrifices.

The greatest hazard to security of an over-all nature in both a collective and individual sense is war. There can be no lasting se-

curity for children or families anywhere as long as war or the possibility of it is a reality. This is true no matter what one's definition of security may be, and it obtains no matter what other mountains may be moved to make more secure the future of our children and the children of the world. The letter written by a nine-year-old boy in New York City who wondered if he had a future, and who asked wistfully if it was worth while for him to work and study to prepare for a career if life itself was in jeopardy, is a moving reminder that even young children feel the impact of the fear and uncertainty that the rumors and rumblings of war have created.

The greatest single asset to security in the personal and individual sense, we are told, is the establishment at an early age of a mutually satisfying and warm relationship between the child and his parents. Such a relationship is invariably influenced by both internal and external factors. While we have assiduously avoided those influences which might tend to control the home and should continue to do so, there is need to support all appropriate national and local programs designed to remove economic and consequent emotional pressures from family life. Any effective operation in this sphere calls for large-scale community organization involving many individuals and countless groups of people working voluntarily and cooperatively toward common ends. As stated earlier, this is a task in the performance of which an all-out effort is a first requisite.

As social workers, furthermore, we must seek a common ground upon which we may move slowly and steadily forward with other groups in the attainment of the immediate and long-range goals of security. We have long since reached the point where we can make no further significant advances without the substantial support of those outside our profession. We have shown that we can fight, we must now demonstrate that we can excel in negotiation. We have been crusaders, we must also become diplomats.

Three major approaches.—The task ahead is not only one of social engineering but in part that of helping to establish a new philosophical orientation, for as our material prosperity increases we stand in greater need of a sharpened sense of values. The task requires at least three major approaches, only one of which is thoroughly familiar to us.

The first is a basic attack on some of the causes of poverty. Seventy-five years ago the National Conference of Social Work expressed the conviction that poverty could be abolished, and in the intervening years there have been many occasions on which men have voiced that dream. We know much more today about human relations and community life, and infinitely more about business and industry, than we did in 1900. Since that time the social sciences have come into their own, and we have a basis of knowledge and experience upon which to launch a far more intelligent and vigorous attack on poverty than at any time in our history.

Intensive studies of individuals, families, and communities whose histories reveal a long record of impecuniousness are a "must" if we are to proceed scientifically in an effort to meet the problem at the source. Why, for example, does one group of families at a given income level and in a given community maintain a reasonably comfortable and healthy existence while other families of similar income in the same community fail to do so? Why do so many families remain below a level of self-support and become a drain on the community? These and related questions are of profound importance and cry out for competent inquiry. The preliminary work of Community Research Associates, of which Bradley Buell is the director, gives promise of providing some fruitful leads as to the type of research and approach required for such problems.

Certainly, any society with vast resources at its command and with drive and imagination, not to mention superb engineering skill, should not fail to direct its genius to the reclamation of impoverished areas of our country as a fundamental approach to the problem of poverty. We can, if we will, substantially increase the productivity of whole regions now virtually barren. The imagination and driving energy of business and industry with the cooperation of local, state, and Federal governments could establish broadly conceived programs similar in purpose to the "Point Four" program recommended for Europe, thus eventually relieving the economic pressure on individual families. Experience has shown, furthermore, that the standard of living in some areas can appreciably be raised by encouraging and aiding small businesses and industrial enterprises indigenous to a given region. If carefully planned and

conducted, such enterprises attract private capital and bring returns to both entrepreneur and worker.

The second major approach is concerned with the economic and social productivity of the individual. The employability of a large number of individuals can be substantially increased through the expansion and more adequate distribution of programs and facilities already familiar to us, including mental hygiene programs and casework services in public and private schools and social agencies; improved vocational guidance and training facilities; and public works programs for those who cannot make the grade in private employment and for many temporarily out of work.

It follows that we must also go further in supplementing incomes that are clearly inadequate and where the welfare of the entire family is seriously threatened. Social work has had extensive experience in this respect and has made a substantial contribution, but we need an extension of insurance provisions against serious illness, accident, permanent disability, and death of the breadwinner; and family or children's allowances or income tax exemptions based on larger deductions in proportion to the number of children in the family. A well-administered and effective network of community services is, of course, essential, not only for relieving the budgets of needy families of certain large items of expense, but in improving the economic status and social independence of the family. To meet this challenge properly we must strengthen and, where indicated, extend public and private services in family casework and public assistance, in child welfare, recreation, vocational guidance, and education. This means a real partnership between voluntary and governmental agencies based on a high degree of mutual confidence. It is ironical that after giving voice to the need for such a partnership for many years, we are still a good distance from achieving a fully effective working relationship in many communities.

There is still a tendency on the part of some of those identified with public agencies to minimize or underestimate the role of the voluntary agency and to reduce it in some instances to the level of filling in the gaps after the tax-supported agency has staked out its claim. The attitude of some who are identified with private agencies, on the other hand, is equally unfortunate. A point of view

sometimes expressed is to the effect that public agencies seek to extend their programs and influence to the point of virtually eliminating private agencies, thus obtaining "control" of child welfare and family life.

I do not believe that any responsible health or welfare official in a position of importance anywhere in the country has any idea whatever of thus extending the power or the influence of the agency over which he presides. The fact remains, however, that some believe the contrary. Such fears, therefore, must be faced and met by those of us who believe that to build security for children and families adequate community services are required, and that both private and tax funds are necessary to sustain them. Those who really believe that will constantly and consistently work to improve both public and private agencies in order to make both more adequate to their common task. The White House Conference of 1940 enunciated a carefully evolved philosophy concerning the respective and joint roles of public and private agencies which is still widely regarded as a sound and acceptable basis for policy discussion and working relations.

The third approach is the most difficult of the three. It does not lend itself to legislation or to other forms of action in the usual meaning of that term. It cannot be blueprinted or promoted in the manner to which we have become accustomed in dealing with concrete programs and proposals. It has to do with values and with creating the moral and spiritual climate within which our people may find a security that will endure.

The ultimate security we all seek must come largely from within, for man cannot live by bread alone. In the final analysis, peace of mind and soul and a faith in something larger than ourselves are the bases on which lasting security is built. We cannot, in the ordinary sense, will such things to our children but we cannot pass them on unless we first have them ourselves. Although it may require the better part of a lifetime fully to achieve such security, we shall deprive our children of their greatest heritage if we fail to give them a sense of the eternal worthwhileness of constantly reaching out for the best we know in an imperfect world.

Man cannot live by bread alone, but neither can he live without

it. The moral and spiritual climate we wish to create for the proper rearing of children will be a hollow mockery and a tragic contradiction unless we see to it that all children have adequate food, shelter, and clothing and somewhere near an equal opportunity for physical and mental health. A major question facing us as we move into the next half century is whether the society that has produced the greatest material wealth since the dawn of time can also furnish the basis for spiritual as well as physical security.

We hold in our hands the only answer we now know to that riddle, an answer that has come down to us through the years. Our course is to lose ourselves in an individual and national effort designed to place first things first. If children and youth and families are in truth our most precious resources, we must develop and protect them, we must make them strong, and we must keep them free. We know one more thing of profound importance, namely, that we cannot do all these things and at the same time have everything else that our selfish individual and national desires may dictate.

It is a matter of choice, and sound choices depend on the availability of pertinent facts and the presence of a sufficient number of intelligent and committed people. The facts are available and at hand, but we need an increasing number of informed and devoted people, both professional and lay, in both high and lowly places, to point the way and lead us unerringly to that security which is possible and attainable only in a free society and at the hands of free men.

Legal Guardianship of Children?

By IRVING WEISSMAN

I AM INCLINED TO THINK that there is more than coincidence in the fact that legal guardianship emerges as a child welfare consideration at the very time when the struggle to extend the status and security of all the people is reaching climactic heights. For the issue of legal guardianship of children is, in essence, an issue of providing children status and security as a right.

The issue arises from the anomalous position of children in our laws. In the eyes of our laws:

1. The child is a person in his own rights. A considerable body of statutory law spells out his rights to care, teaching, training, and treatment. These add up to birthrights to live, grow, and develop to the fullest potentialities of his individual capacity.
2. However, the law presumes that the child is too immature and inexperienced to be left to fend and defend for himself, to make his own choices and decisions, and to realize his rights wisely and responsibly.
3. Consequently, the law requires that the exercise of the child's rights shall be entrusted to other persons capable of, and interested in, acting for the child during his childhood.
4. The law makes it a duty of parents to take up this responsibility for their own children.
5. It makes it a duty of the state to supplement and substitute for parental efforts whenever needed to further the best interests and welfare of the child.

This conception of the child embraces practically all children below the age of twenty-one who have not married or otherwise changed their status as children. The law calls these children "minors" and declares that, by reason of their minority, they need somebody to oversee them and act in their behalf. In cases where parents are not able or available to do this job, the law provides for the appointment of legal guardians.

A recent Children's Bureau study reveals that guardianship procedure is used infrequently to protect the child who is without the protection of his parents. The whys and wherefores brought out by the study pose many important questions which I believe states and local communities and their various child welfare agencies must ask of their own policies and practices. It is my purpose to outline a number of these questions to start off the discussion and study that must get under way if children are to receive better protection through the use of legal guardianship.

As we know, it took long years of study, discussion, and experience to arrive at some clarity and certainty in the use of adoption and juvenile court custody proceedings. Many of the same problems and tasks lie ahead in regard to the use of guardianship procedures. We have scarcely made a start at this job. To date, very little has been said or written on the subject in social work and legal circles. The published proceedings of leading conference groups show not a single extended reference. Apparently this is the first time that the subject has been given a place on the program of the National Conference of Social Work. Social work literature, with few exceptions, contains only brief general references. The legal field likewise has neglected the subject. And yet, curiously enough, guardianship is an old subject. American colonies had guardianship laws patterned on the English model of the times. With statehood, legislation on guardianship was usually among the first to be enacted. Thereafter, however, the changes were few and far between. And, in consequence, the guardianship laws have become the most archaic laws relating to children on the statute books of the states.

Formal study of guardianship has been as completely neglected as formal discussion. Until the pioneering researches by Sophonisba P. Breckinridge and her students at the University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration, firsthand information on guardianship procedures and practices was altogether lacking. In 1946 the United States Children's Bureau undertook the first extended field study of guardianship. It covered twelve judicial areas of six states scattered across the land.¹ A full report of the findings,

¹ The probate districts of Hartford and Greenwich in Connecticut; the judicial

with conclusions and recommendations, is available and free individual copies may be obtained by writing the Children's Bureau in Washington for *Guardianship: a Way of Fulfilling Public Responsibility for Children*; its publication number is 330.

The report points out that every state has recognized its responsibility toward children by making provisions in law for the appointment of legal guardians for children. Three plans of legal guardianship are generally provided by state laws. One extends to the person of the child, another to his estate, and a third to both his person and estate.

The provision of legal guardianship is recognized by law to involve various types of services to be furnished by the state to children. Though some of these services are administrative in character and other judicial, practically all states assign to courts the entire job of rendering them. There are a number of reasons for this. Questions about the rights and relationships of persons are the traditional concern of courts in this country. We hold it incompatible with democratic principles for one person to exercise power and authority over another's person or property without the sanction of the courts. We have long relied on due process of law to secure our individual rights, fix our individual responsibilities, and enforce the obligations we owe one another and society as a whole.

Only certain courts may act for the state in guardianship matters. Although variously designated in the different states, the most common name being that of probate court, they are everywhere those courts or divisions to which is also entrusted the administration of estates of deceased persons. Thus, the setting for the guardianship proceeding is one in which emphasis is upon property considerations.

On the basis of the findings of the study, the report concludes that the guardianship courts are not sufficiently or adequately protecting the person and property of children. Many children grow up in a kind of second-class status because their parents are dead or incompetent and no one else is designated legal guardians of their persons.

districts of East Baton Rouge and Caddo in Louisiana; and the county jurisdictions of Los Angeles and Sacramento in California; Alachua and Duval, in Florida; Kent and Muskegon, in Michigan; and Cole and Jackson, in Missouri.

It was not found possible to determine how many children grow up in these circumstances, nor could their numbers be approximated. No county was found to have available any accurate information on the extent of orphanhood and other conditions that deprive children of the natural guardianship of their parents. And no court had available any complete statistics on the number of children currently under legal guardianship of the person.

Statistics compiled from court records for the year 1945 showed that very few children are provided guardians of the person. A little less than 1,500 appointments were recorded by the twelve courts in the study which serve a child population of nearly 1,350,000, of whom about a tenth were estimated to be without parents or permanently separated from their parents. Most of the petitions were filed for special purposes with the guardianship intended to last only for the period necessary to accomplish that purpose, which, in most cases, was adoption, medical care, enlistment into the armed forces, and marriage.

In respect to the provision of guardianship for the protection of estates, the study found that appointments were often made unnecessarily. For many children the appointment of a guardian of estate is a meaningless, wasteful, and expensive procedure that adds nothing to the protection the child already enjoys.

In a great majority of cases, the appointment amounts to the child's paying a myriad of legal and court charges for the privilege of having his own parents handle his property. Of estate guardians appointed during 1945 by the courts studied, 70 percent were the parents of the children concerned. Most estates of children contained no real estate or investments requiring active administration. Approximately 80 percent of those studied consisted of cash in the bank, monthly benefit payments, and similar assets applicable to the current expenses of the child. Over 40 percent were valued at less than \$500; over 60 percent were worth less than \$1,000; nearly 80 percent, less than \$2,500, and nearly 90 percent, less than \$5,000.

The report indicates a number of reasons for the present ineffectiveness of guardianship procedures. The two major reasons pointed up are that the law does not require the use of legal guard-

ianship procedure and that no adequate machinery has been provided for using it effectively.

The report reveals that the courts concern themselves with the legal guardianship of children only when petitioned to do so. Instances of the courts acting on their own initiative were extremely rare, notwithstanding the theory that courts have a special duty actively to protect children. Procedures for finding and routinely reporting children in need of personal guardianship are undeveloped. There are no provisions for finding suitable guardians and for paying guardians of children who have no estates which can be drawn upon for the purpose.

Ordinarily, appointments are made in a perfunctory manner. Whether they are appointing guardians of the person or guardians of the estate, many courts do not see the child or the guardian. Frequently the arrangements are made through attorneys. As a rule, the courts accept the petition of the first person who happens to file one. Few courts use social agency services to inform themselves about the child's situation and the fitness of the person desiring appointment as personal guardian. Nor is the competence of estate guardians formally investigated. Notice is not always given to persons legitimately interested in the appointment. Ordinarily, in most states, there is no hearing on the appointment unless a conflict arises. The petition is often disposed of on the same day that it is filed. Many appointments were found to be appointments in name only. The guardians assumed little actual responsibility. Relatives were named guardians in the great majority of cases. Among non-relatives found receiving appointment as personal guardians were public estate administrators, bank trust officers, attorneys, independent foster parents, persons seeking adoption, and, occasionally, social agencies.

The courts generally are poorly equipped for the job. The court's jurisdiction is often confused; the judge's time is taken up with administrative functions; facilities and personnel are inadequate in number and quality; and there is lacking a unified, social approach to children's problems. Most courts handling child-guardianship cases are cluttered with a variety of diverse responsibilities remote from children's interests. Some serve populations too small to pro-

vide the necessary volume of business to support the court adequately and to enable the judge to acquire sufficient experience and skill in children's cases. Others have too large a volume of business to permit the judge to individualize cases and give proper attention to social as well as legal considerations. The absence of state supervision of the business of the courts is evident in varying court case loads and in the use of varying procedures, practices, and forms.

The judges handling child-guardianship cases are not required to have a special background for work with children. Nor are they required to specialize in children's cases. Some states do not require them to be lawyers. In states where guardianship jurisdictions rest in a separate probate court, the judge of probate often has less desirable tenure and salary than judges of other courts hearing cases in the first instance.

No court employs social workers. Heavy reliance is placed on private attorneys to perform clerical functions related to guardianship proceedings. Often, however, this arrangement involves a greater expense to the child than the court is permitted to charge.

Many courts lack adequate physical facilities. Record and filing systems are antiquated and duplicating at most courts. As a rule, the courts do not systematically inform the public concerning their work. None publishes adequate statistics concerning child-guardianship cases.

Supervision of the guardian is lax to the point of negligence. Practically no follow-up of the child under personal guardianship is made by the courts unless or until a petition for the removal of the guardian is presented. Except for the requirement of nominal bond in three states, the guardian of person is completely outside the superintending control of the court appointing him. He is under no requirement to submit an accounting of the stewardship at any time. Nor is he required to submit to formal discharge procedure. The courts generally maintain no contact with him and, to all practical intents and purposes, permit personal guardianship to be exercised and to lapse at the guardian's pleasure.

The guardian of the estate, on the other hand, is subject to a number of legal controls by the court. He must file bond, inventory, and periodic accounts. He must submit for court approval his plans

to invest, sell, or disburse the assets of the child's estate. His settlements with the child must be sanctioned by the court. He must submit to formal court termination of his guardianship.

In actual practice, however, the courts are extremely lax in enforcing these legal requirements upon the guardian of estate. Generally, the smaller the estate, the less the attention from the courts. Since most children's estates are small, few receive active supervision from the courts. Furthermore, final settlements between guardians and wards often are made outside the court, and the guardian is discharged without an accounting to the court.

The cost of guardian fees, attorney fees, and the court costs cut substantially into the children's estates.

The guardianship laws are very old; they have come down to the present day substantially unchanged. Consequently, in various respects they are inconsistent with twentieth-century concepts of child welfare. Definitions of the child subject to guardianship are not uniform. Distinctive terms for guardians of the person and guardians of the estate are needed, as is more precise definition of such terms as "guardianship," "wardship," "custody," "care," and "control," which are sometimes used in the statutes interchangeably and equivalently.

The fact that the guardianship law is attached to probate law has resulted in a lopsided development of the property elements of the law. Other problems stem from the fact that the law applies to legally incompetent persons generally rather than to minor children in particular. There is a consequent detailing of elaborate legal procedures that have little place in, and applicability to, the situations of children.

The law lodges jurisdiction in guardianship matters in probate courts without clarifying the jurisdiction of juvenile and divorce courts which also deal with questions affecting the guardianship of children.

Thus it is apparent that many of the provisions relating to legal guardianship of children are antiquated and their utilization under today's conditions presents many problems. Prodigious tasks lie ahead in revising legislation, setting standards, and improving the legal and social machinery for providing guardianship to children.

The Children's Bureau report offers definite proposals for action in relation to guardianship of person and guardianship of estate. In regard to the provision of guardianship of the person the Bureau recommends:

1. A special court proceeding should be established to consider a child's need for guardianship of the person separately from his need for guardianship of the estate.
2. The special court proceeding for the appointment of the guardian of the person should be available in behalf of the child whose parents are dead, or who is otherwise deprived of parental care and protection.
3. The proceeding for the appointment of the guardian of the person should be conducted in a court of general jurisdiction in children's cases.
4. The court conducting the proceeding for the appointment of the guardian of the person should have social services available to it.

In regard to the provision of guardianship of the estate, the Bureau recommends:

1. The guardian of the person should be entitled to act for the child when the child's whole estate is valued at \$500 or less in lump sum or consists of monthly money payments of \$50 or less.
2. When a child is entitled to receive assets valued at more than \$500 in lump sum or more than \$50 in monthly payments, this fact should be reported to the local court of jurisdiction for such action as it deems appropriate; in the event that no problem of management of the estate is found present, the court should permit the guardian of the person of the child to act for the child, without the necessity of appointing that individual or agency as guardian of the estate.
3. The power of appointing the guardian of the estate should be vested in a court of general jurisdiction in estate matters.
4. The court appointing the guardian of the estate should have social services available to it.

Social agencies and social workers have an important stake in seeing that such improvements as these are made in child guardianship policies and procedures. Increasingly, guardianship is becoming a child welfare problem by thrusting legal questions of respon-

sibility for children to the forefront of considerations in providing care and service to children. Many troublesome guardianship problems already face agencies in connection with adoptions, placements, the licensing of foster homes, and the handling of benefit funds which are made available to children under agency care.

Instances are cropping up in which guardianship procedure is being used to circumvent the requirements of the adoption and licensing laws. In these cases the person denied adoption of a child or refused a foster home license takes out guardianship papers to prevent removal of the child.

Other problems are arising in respect to what agencies may or may not do for children placed directly with them by their parents or other persons or committed to them by court action. When may an agency consent to adoption? When may it arrange for medical treatment? Does the right to place a child include the right to return the child to his parents without referral back to the court? May the court return children in agency care to parents without knowledge of the agency which holds custody? When may it accept money belonging to the child? Many times agency placement and treatment plans for children become confused and complicated because of questions like these. Many of the contributing factors stem from the gaps, ambiguities, and inconsistencies of children's laws relating to guardianship, particularly the absence of definite legal requirement that all minors have guardians; the absence of prohibitions against casual passing on of children; the lack of clarity as to which court and what type of proceeding is to be used when legal action is indicated for the protection of a child; the lack of clear distinctions as to the elements of authority and responsibility inherent in guardianship, custody, care, and control; and the lack of clarification of the extent and degree of authority which agencies may exercise in taking charge of the person and property of children.

The legal problems of child care, placement, and service are being enlarged by recent developments. As a result of war casualties and postwar disturbances of family life great numbers of children have been separated from their parents, with consequent increased need for their care and supervision away from home. More and

more children are becoming eligible for financial benefits under social security and veterans legislation; to insure that payments are used for the children's benefit, safeguards are increasingly necessary, especially when the children are not living in parental homes. Of the hundreds of thousands of children now receiving monthly benefits from these programs, an estimated tenth do not have a parent or legal guardian to receive the payments for them; in most instances the payments are made to the persons who happen to be caring for them. Finally, public welfare agencies of the states and of local communities are taking more responsibility for children; to clarify public responsibility, greater attention must be given the legal status of children.

Now if social agencies and social workers are to contribute constructively to guardianship policies and practices in their own states and local communities, they themselves must gain greater awareness and clarity concerning the issues in legal guardianship of children. I should like to outline the child welfare issues in guardianship of the person on which discussion by social agencies and social workers seems to me to be especially needed. The first and perhaps the basic issue is posed by the suggestion of:

1. *The requirement of a personal guardian for every child.*—This involves considerations of the legal status of the child. Under our American system of law the child is an incomplete legal personality classed as a minor. The law views him as having personal rights but lacking capacity for independent judgments and actions. This conception carries with it an obligation to complete the legal personality of the child by supplying him a medium through which he may become a wholly effective person. The medium provided by law is the device of guardianship. The provision of guardianship is therefore a legal essential for making the child a legally whole person.

The law provides guardianship for children, in the first instance, through the doctrine of natural guardianship. Under this doctrine, guardianship devolves automatically upon the child's own parents on the general theory that their love and interest are sufficient assurance that they will care for him and protect his rights when need be. In general, the father and the mother jointly and equally ac-

quire guardianship over the child born in wedlock, and the mother alone over the child born out of wedlock. In case of death of one parent, the surviving parent automatically becomes sole guardian.

Natural guardianship is defined by law as a fiduciary rather than possessive relationship of parents and child. It carries no absolute or inherent rights in the child; rather the child is seen to belong with his parents and not to his parents. The parents are accountable to the state for the conduct of this trust, which may be taken from them in the interests and welfare of the child.

Natural guardianship can be exercised only by the parents. In case of death or court termination of parental rights, it does not pass on to relatives or other persons. Relatives, step-parents, and nonrelated persons may acquire natural guardianship status in relation to a child only by adoption proceedings. Sometimes the putative father of a child born out of wedlock may become joint natural guardian with the mother by acknowledging the child as his or by marrying the mother.

Parents may not transfer natural guardianship. They may designate a so-called "testamentary guardian" in their last will and testament. The testamentary guardian is frequently required to obtain confirmation of his selection by, or to post a bond with, the guardianship court.

When natural guardianship ceases, the need for legal guardianship is presumed to ensue. Legal guardianship is described to approximate the parent-and-child relation under natural guardianship. However, there are important differences. Like the parent, the legal guardian becomes responsible for the care, custody, and control of the child's person. He acquires the power and authority to make necessary decisions and arrangements in behalf of the child's welfare. Moreover, he is presumed to be subject to direct supervision of the court appointing him. Though he has the right to decide how the child shall be cared for, he does not, like the parent, have the obligation to support the child. By the same token, he is not entitled to the child's earnings and services. Finally, legal guardianship does not take away the child's right to inherit from his own parents nor does it give him the right to inherit from the guardian.

Under direction of the court, the legal guardian has wide discretion to make plans for the ward; to arrange his care, education, and medical treatment; to regulate his behavior; and to secure for the child the services and benefits to which he may be entitled under law. He may take the child into his own home or place him in foster care or adoption. Again, like the parent, the legal guardian of the child's person has no right to handle property belonging to the child.

The responsibility to provide legal guardianship falls to the state under the doctrine of *parens patriae* which, in our American conception, means a state guardianship of children which becomes activated as soon as parents cease fulfilling their obligations toward the child according to the standards of child welfare set by the community. Implicit in this conception of public responsibility for children is the idea that the child is not a chattel to be bought or sold in the black market nor a plaything to be lightly picked up and discarded. He is a human being to be treated with dignity and respect. His removal or permanent transfer from the security of his own family is regarded as a public concern properly subject to public scrutiny and sanction. When need for such a change arises, the state is activated to the role of fiduciary who does not want to possess the child but rather wants to safeguard his status and security by bringing the child into the protection and care of another family setting as soon as possible.

But, as the Children's Bureau study points out, the state largely defaults on this obligation to children by failing to prohibit the casual passing on of children. In some states, parents are allowed to give up their children in voluntary arrangements. Many states encourage a practice amounting to "finders are keepers" with regard to children by statutes which embody the doctrine of *in loco parentis* in one form or another. This doctrine is widely interpreted to grant guardianship in fact to persons who voluntarily take a child into their own home and thereby stand in the place of parents to the child.

The Children's Bureau favors a correlation of laws to eliminate such conflicts and to declare positively and clearly the state's responsibility to protect children who lose their parents. The Bureau

would place a duty of obtaining legal authorization upon people and agencies who take children into long-time care. It believes that the legal status of a child in relation to the person or agency caring for him should always be made clear but it does not believe that a requirement of a legal guardian for every child would be practicable at this time. It believes, as the study findings show, that in their present stage of development, court and social agency resources would be disastrously overtaxed by the vast extension of work that would follow such a requirement.

Another issue in guardianship is centered in the question of:

2. *The designation of the court of jurisdiction.*—A constitutional heritage enjoins upon courts to protect the child in his status, in his rights, and in his relations. Courts generally share this responsibility, but the power of appointing guardians is given only to those courts which are most generally known by the name of probate courts. The exclusive character of the probate court's jurisdiction in guardianship is confused in most states, however, by the fact that it is possible to bring questions affecting the guardianship of a child's person before other courts, notably the juvenile court and the divorce court. Not infrequently the confusion caused by divided court responsibility for children results in an overlapping of work or an overlooking of the problems of guardianship.

The joining of guardianship and probate jurisdiction means that the guardianship problems of children come before courts whose primary interests are not in children, but in estates. Probate courts follow a fiscal approach rather than the social approach so necessary in dealing with children. Since legal guardianship establishes a substitute parental relationship for a child, it would seem important that the guardian should be appointed in a court in which the recognized principles of child protection and family welfare are controlling.

The Children's Bureau, accordingly, recommends that a special court proceeding should be established to consider a child's need for guardianship of the person separately from his need for guardianship of the estate. It further recommends that proceeding for the appointment of a guardian of the person should be conducted in a court of general jurisdiction in children's cases. In states where this

court has all-around civil jurisdiction, a special division of the court should be established or a specialist judge assigned to handle all matters affecting children. In states where there are separate children's courts, guardianship jurisdiction should be transferred to these courts. Wherever possible, the courts granted guardianship jurisdiction should be tied into a unified state court system to insure the use of standard forms, procedures, and practices in guardianship cases.

Insuring special competence on the part of the judge who is to handle children's cases raises many problems. The judgeship must be made attractive enough. Tenure must be long enough to warrant special preparation and the salary must be large enough to compare favorably with those of judges in other assignments. The court should have a dignified and suitable courtroom with adequate facilities and equipment to carry on the court work. The clerical staff should be adequate both in number and qualifications.

A third issue in guardianship involves:

3. *The compensation of guardians in view of their lack of obligation to support the child.*—In instances where guardians have responsibility for both person and estate of the child, the Children's Bureau study found that courts followed the common practice of granting support allowances from the child's estate even when the guardian was a parent person. Guardians are also entitled to reimbursement for other expenses incurred in the care of the child or the handling of his business affairs, and to fee for their services. The amount of the fee is usually decided by the court by the rule of what is "just and reasonable." In Veterans Administration cases the guardian's fee is not supposed to exceed 5 percent of the ward's annual income.

In instances where the child has no estate to support him, the presumption of the law is that relatives will support. There is no provision made for public support. The child living with a guardian who is not also an immediate relative is not eligible to receive assistance from the Aid to Dependent Children program. The Children's Bureau has made no recommendation on this question, although it recognizes that it presents an important consideration in securing suitable legal guardians.

A fourth issue in guardianship is related to:

4. *The provision of social services in reporting the need for guardianship and in selecting and supervising the guardian.*—The court process in guardianship involves administrative as well as judicial functions. By law, every state in the study places both functions in the court. While this is contrary to the principle of the separation of powers underlying our system of government, it is in the familiar pattern of juvenile court law and stems from the same historical lag in the development of community resources which caused juvenile courts to set up their own administrative services.

It is significant to note the study finding that the courts appointing guardians varied considerably from juvenile courts in the extent to which they have implemented their administrative responsibilities by providing and utilizing social services. Yet a social approach to guardianship is clearly indicated by the policy declared in law that the welfare of the child shall be the controlling consideration in deciding his guardianship. To act in the best interests of the child, courts need to know his particular situation and the ability and fitness of the prospective guardian to meet his particular need. Court experience with adoption and custody cases has demonstrated that this type of information can best be supplied the court through the methods of social casework.

Several courts were found to use social services available within the court and the community at large. Instances were few, however. In general, the approach was exploratory. Only one state, California, has legislation authorizing the social investigation of petitions for the appointment of guardians.

The Children's Bureau believes that as states and communities develop, strengthen, and extend child welfare services, the courts will increasingly be able to turn to local social services resources to assist them with guardianship problems. It believes that state departments of public welfare should give leadership in stimulating the development of social services in court cases, provided either in the court itself or in a local public welfare agency. Since courts are not self-activating and social agencies represent another extension of the state's concern for children, responsibility should be placed

upon social agencies to discover and report children in need of guardianship.

I should like to point out one more issue in guardianship:

5. *The appointment of social agencies as guardians.*—Many social agencies and institutions have authority to accept appointment as guardians by express provision of their basic enabling acts or charters. Agencies receive appointment only occasionally. They now accept guardianship appointments in the corporate name of the agency, although in past years the more common practice was to designate individual staff and board members in their personal capacity.

Several problems are presented by agency acceptance of legal guardianship. The relation of guardian and ward is intended to be a personal relationship, and it is questionable whether an agency can stand in the place of parents in the literal sense of the law. The concept that the guardian completes the legal wholeness of the child raises questions as to whether the agency can operate in the role of child representative and professional agency at one and the same time. The contradiction this situation points up is that the agency becomes its own client in that as guardian of the child, it carries the authority to accept, reject, and evaluate its own activities. Some agencies question whether they should take guardianship in view of the lack of resources to carry long-time responsibility for children. The Children's Bureau report does not make any recommendations in regard to this question.

In conclusion, I should like to call your attention to the question mark after the title of this paper. It is there by intention and not by typographical error. It was placed there because it seemed to me, in the light of the present state of professional knowledge, understanding, and experience with legal guardianship that question-raising is the only practical approach to the subject at this time. I hope that the questions which I have raised will be carried into agency staff meetings and into the larger circles of local, state, and national conferences. By discussing the subject as a proposition now we should be better prepared to consider it as a definite proposal later.

DISCUSSIONS

I. By ALEX ELSON

I HAVE BEEN ASKED to comment on Mr. Weissman's paper from the viewpoint of the legal profession, of which I am a member. The responsibility for speaking for any profession is a great responsibility. For one lawyer to speak in behalf of the entire legal profession is not merely a supererogation, it would be an act of folly. I therefore speak for myself with the hope that there may be others of my fellow lawyers who agree with some if not all of what I am about to say.

The Children's Bureau study and Mr. Weissman's summation and analysis of it are so thorough that little room is left for comment. As is true of many other studies the principal value is that of documenting and evaluating conclusions about which there can be no dispute. No lawyer who has worked in the field of guardianship law will be greatly surprised by the findings of the Children's Bureau. The findings of the Children's Bureau do not disclose any important defects in the substantive law of guardian and ward. The areas of weakness are almost entirely in administration of the law. The study does, however, raise one fundamental policy issue and that is whether or not there should be a positive program in the law for providing a legal guardian for every child who is without parents. Whether or not such a responsibility is accepted by the community, what the Children's Bureau proposes by way of reform of administration is:

1. Improving the machinery for bringing to the attention of the courts children who are in need of personal guardianship
2. Shifting jurisdiction of guardianship of the person to courts more directly concerned with child welfare
3. Equipping the courts with machinery for social investigation both at the time of appointment of the guardian and periodic follow ups thereafter
4. Limiting guardianship of the estates of children to cases where there are significant property management problems involved

There are two principal points which from a lawyer's viewpoint deserve consideration in connection with these proposals:

1. *The role of the lawyer in guardianship proceedings.*—One of the clearly established facts that emerges from the Children's Bureau study is that the legal profession has failed to provide leadership in bringing about the reforms necessary in the administration of guardianship proceedings. Inasmuch as the guardian and ward relationship is one of legal status it will be necessary to continue to think in terms of court administration of the relationship. Lawyers of necessity will, therefore, play a continuing important role in this area both as attorneys in the proceedings and, of course, as judges. It is therefore important that we try to understand why the legal profession has failed and what seems to be indicated by way of change if the failure is to be overcome. It is altogether conceivable that much of the good which would certainly come if the proposals of the Children's Bureau were adopted would be frustrated unless there is change within the legal profession, particularly in the education of lawyers.

There is a number of reasons why the legal profession has failed in this area. To begin with, though lawyers are called officers of the court and occupy what therefore may be a semiofficial position, they are, in fact, except for those actually on public pay rolls, entrepreneurs engaged in the practice of law. Though individually lawyers endeavor to uphold professional traditions and ideals, they must earn a living, and the charging of a fee assumes considerable importance in terms not only of earning one's living but in keeping one's law office open. Most lawyers, therefore, limit their activities to matters brought to them by their clients and tend also to handle those matters which are most profitable. Many of the problems of children in immediate need of guardianship are never brought to the attention of the individual practitioner. Cases involving personal guardianship of children are seldom handled by lawyers independently of the administration of the estate of the child. It is rare that a lawyer is called upon to take part in a guardianship proceeding involving a child where there is no estate. Reported decisions of the courts show that most of the cases in which the law has been developed in relation to the guardianship of children and their cus-

tody have concerned children with substantial estates. A child without property does not receive legal representation any more than the adult without property. As a matter of fact, he receives less than the adult. The adult without property is in a position to seek legal advice and assistance from legal aid bureaus or from attorneys of his own acquaintance who will give the service without charge or on a nominal basis. The disabilities arising out of childhood make it unlikely that the child will receive legal representation unless some adult acts for him.

Even where the child has property, as the Children's Bureau study so well points out, frequently the problems concerned with his person are neglected in the concentration on administering his estate. Moreover, even if we assume that a lawyer is interested in the person of the child, the absence of any machinery for fact-finding in connection with the care of the child makes it unlikely that the lawyer can do much in a positive way to make certain that the child will receive the kind of care and attention that will be in his best interest. Actually, while the child is nominally the client, usually it is the parent or relative or friend who deals with the attorney. If that parent or relative or friend is not a fit custodian for the child or is not acting in the best interest of the child, the lawyer is put in a position where there is little or nothing that he can do. There is inherent in the situation a conflict of interests, and this is particularly true where allowances are made to parents or relatives for the support of the child out of the estate of the child while the child is in their custody. Under these circumstances it is no wonder that the personal problems of the child are overlooked.

To use a lawyer's phrase, these facts are not offered by way of a plea of confession and avoidance. There is no getting away from the responsibility which the legal profession has to show leadership in bringing about needed changes in the law. The failure to exercise leadership in the law of guardian and ward is not exceptional. The profession has failed in practically every area of family law and has failed also in the vital field of criminal law. Essentially, the problem is one of the education of the lawyer. Law students today in most law schools receive substantially the same education as that of law students a half century ago. The emphasis is still pri-

marily on the bread-and-butter courses. There has been a general failure to give effect to the tremendous changes in the law brought about by developments of the past quarter century and particularly the body of legislation which has been developed concerning the family. Moreover, the law schools have concentrated primarily on training lawyers in the thinking process, lawyers who are able to argue by example and by analogy. In a system of law based on *stare decisis* it is, of course, exceedingly important that emphasis be placed on the teaching of the thinking process necessary under such a system. But not enough attention has been given to the technique of discovering facts, evaluating facts, assembling and presenting facts, which in the actual practice assumes much greater importance than knowing the legal rules involved. Most important to the problem we are discussing, the techniques so important in the practice of law of understanding and dealing with human beings have been largely ignored. Few law schools have used the contributions of modern psychiatry. Few law schools have thought in terms of the use of field casework courses, in contrast with schools of social work where important strides in teaching techniques have been accomplished through such courses. Finally, while there has been increasing recognition of the need for integrating law with the other social sciences, law schools are still literally on the threshold of efforts at real integration.

The success of the proposals of the Children's Bureau to reform the law of guardianship are, in my judgment, dependent in large measure on the success which the legal profession realizes in bringing about the changes that are necessary in the education of lawyers. I make one practical suggestion in connection with this problem: that the Children's Bureau take up directly with the American Association of Law Schools the need for changes in curriculum and in teaching techniques to bring about the skills, the knowledge, and the understanding on the part of the legal profession which are imperative if we are to make real progress in the reform of family law and, in particular, the law of guardianship.

2. *Guardianship is both a public and private responsibility.*—Mr. Weissman leaves unanswered some important questions. I shall boldly attempt to answer what I regard as the key question.

While the doctrine of *parens patriae* has been generally accepted as applicable to children, and particularly in the relation of guardian and ward, the law of guardianship has generally been considered a field of private law. What has happened in the past two decades is that the development in the field of public law relating to children has been so rapid that demands for legal guardianship arising from this legislation have grown tremendously. Guardianship has become an important device in the administration of juvenile and family courts. Guardianship is required by the various measures attempting to buttress the position of the dependent child as well as provide security to the family. A very large number of children in this country are beneficiaries under state and Federal programs. According to the Children's Bureau study, as of December 31, 1947, the number of children in this country in current-payment status for social security insurance benefits was estimated at 524,783. In addition, a large number of children of veterans are receiving benefits growing out of compensation, pensions, United States Government life insurance, and National Service life insurance. To this group should be added a large number of children receiving benefits under state-financed programs. Finally, with the recent expansion of pension plans of industry, it is likely that the number of child beneficiaries will in a few years pyramid substantially. These demands complicate an already complicated situation. The present machinery for providing legal guardianship is breaking down under this burden.

While recognizing that the responsibility to provide legal guardianship falls to the state under the doctrine of *parens patriae* the Children's Bureau would place the duty of obtaining legal authorization to act as guardian upon persons and agencies who take children into long-time care. Although emphasizing the importance and desirability of assuring legal guardianship to every child in need thereof, the Children's Bureau states that it is impractical to seek this goal at this time. This is one conclusion with which I cannot agree. It is true that there are considerations of expediency which will impede or perhaps make impossible the realization of the desired goal. But faced with what is beginning to approach a collapse of existing machinery under ever increasing burdens I am

strongly of the opinion that considerations of expediency should not be permitted to stand in the way of vigorous efforts to bring about reform without further delay. Since there is no disagreement as to the objective to be sought, the effectiveness of a program designed to achieve this objective should not be watered away by an advance conclusion that its accomplishment is impracticable at this time.

Public responsibility for children is an established fact. That being so, the only remaining issue is that of working out a program for carrying out this responsibility. While private persons and social agencies will have to play an important role in carrying out this responsibility, the problem is so large that it is clear that they cannot do so alone. I therefore urge that some additional proposals be added, such as that of establishing the office of public guardian on a sound and substantial basis, designed to supply the need which cannot be filled by private persons or social agencies. Exceedingly difficult problems are involved in such proposals, but no time should be lost in their formulation. Presentation of such proposals to state legislatures should be made simultaneously with the other excellent proposals that have been advanced.

II. By ALAN KEITH-LUCAS

IN THE FACE OF Mr. Weissman's evidence, I have a feeling of deep humility. We have, you and I, been appallingly casual about a basic human need—the need of a child to have someone legally and actually responsible for him. It is no time for excuses. Historically, though, I think we can see how in our early professional pride we were all too quick to reject what was potentially good in what we already had. Only recently have we learned that the personal relationships which we prize and nurture need for their fullest development a sound framework of legal relationship—that framework which is the legal profession's unique contribution to the preserving of human rights. And only recently, for instance, have we in our Louisiana Aid to Dependent Children pro-

gram listed "clarification of a child's legal status" as one of those basic needs of children with which we are inevitably concerned.

We have, however, been further hindered by the very confusions of which Mr. Weissman speaks, and in particular by the confusion between guardianship procedures and those of a juvenile court. For this, I believe, goes much deeper than a mere confusion of terms. Like most semantic muddles it betrays a confusion of basic concepts. That is why, although I agree with all of Mr. Weissman's major conclusions, with some rather minor exceptions, I have serious question as to whether we can tackle this problem of a child's legal rights by revamping or reviving one procedure without re-thinking the whole problem of who becomes responsible when a child's parents fail him.

First, we need to distinguish two different aspects of a normal parent's functioning. One function I shall call "responsibility": the right to make far-reaching decisions for his child's welfare—with whom he shall live, where go to school, and where to church. The other I shall call "care": tending to his daily needs and having him physically with one. That these are not necessarily exercised by the same person is illustrated by the fact that the rights and responsibility of a parent, or a guardian, in no way cease when he delegates the care of the child to a boarding school. Yet, as Mr. Weissman so forcibly points out, the need for someone to fulfill this tremendously important function of taking responsibility for a child has been almost ignored except where there is money. Juvenile courts have been no exception. What a juvenile court, in most cases, transfers when a child is neglected or is without parents is not, at least in theory, "responsibility" but "care," "custody," or "physical possession." It is true that this custody has taken on, by dint of long necessity, an element of responsibility and is sometimes defined, as in Mr. Weissman's original study, as "care or control" or is, as in the otherwise excellent Standard Juvenile Court Act, used in both senses. I am sure, however, that other agencies have found, with something of a shock, that foster parents may sometimes acquire, by virtue of their physical possession of a child, rights and responsibilities superior to those of the agency for which they are working. It is scarcely surprising that a judge once in my hearing committed a child to the

custody of his parents "under the custody of the Catholic Charities."

But, if a court is to be, as we believe it should, a judicial rather than an administrative agency, what it needs to be concerned with is who it can trust to act responsibly for a child. Who shall physically care for him is an administrative matter. Thus, although the court may and should require an account of stewardship, it should be guardianship of the person, temporary or permanent, rather than custody or "care" that should be at stake in any juvenile court proceeding. Custody or care, whether acquired by delegation from a parent or guardian or assumed by default, should have no legal status. It should, in fact, be illegal to continue, beyond certain necessary and emergency limits, to care for a child without specific authorization from either a natural or an appointed guardian. Moreover, this authorization should be time-limited, though renewable, and should depend for its validity on the continued exercise of responsibility by the child's parent or guardian. Where the parent or guardian's exercise of his responsibility falls below a certain level as shown by such factors as contacts, support, or not being available to make important decisions, he should be replaced, either on a temporary and thereby partial basis, or, where it seems clear that he can never reassume responsibility, more permanently and more completely. These same two reassessments of parental responsibility should be possible in cases where the courts must take protective action, or where a parent voluntarily relinquishes responsibility for his child. It matters little what we call this responsibility, or whether we devise a separate term for its temporary and partial aspect, as long as we are clear that in each case it is responsibility and not care which is transferred. I do believe, however, that we need to devise a unified children's code, apart from specific juvenile court, divorce, or probate court legislation and freed from a tie-up with physical neglect which will offer a child protection whenever he finds himself without someone to act responsibly for him.

In this, we must distinguish between temporary and partial transfer of responsibility and a transfer which is permanent and complete. These differ in degree as well as in the time element. The natural guardian from whom temporary and partial responsibility is removed retains certain rights and responsibilities; specifically,

those that affect the possibility of his at some future time reassuming guardianship. For this should be the essential difference: all a natural guardian need do to regain full responsibility should be to prove his ability to do so on a minimum basis. He does not need to prove that he can offer more than the temporary guardian can. A temporary guardian's commission should be held, on the other hand, for the child's express benefit and should be reassignable by the court for no other reason than that the child's interests would be served by a change. The temporary guardian, therefore, cannot consent to adoption, or change of name or religion, and must allow reasonable visitation. The permanent guardian, however, becomes in fact the parent, with a status differing from that of adoptive parent only in that his responsibility is relinquishable and does not involve a change of legal identity for the child. This type of guardianship would be held, for instance, by an agency after legal abandonment or surrender of a child until legal adoption.

Yes, by an agency. I recognize the validity of Mr. Weissman's objections to agency guardianship. Although I do not believe that I see an agency as quite so impersonal as I think Mr. Weissman does, because of the personal interest of the caseworker, I do believe in a personal guardianship wherever possible. I agree with him that we have, in many cases, denied personal guardianship to a child who might have had this security. However, we do need to be realistic. A nominal guardianship is worse than useless; authority must lie with the person or organization actually exercising what we have called responsibility. If placement is on a voluntary basis and the parent dies or defaults, then I can see real value in a relative or friend—someone close to the child—taking over his guardianship and acting as the agency's client. I can see value also in a residual guardianship held by a member of the family even where temporary guardianship is held by an agency under the orders of a court. But in many cases there is no such relative or friend available. Who then? The foster parents? I think the answer is "yes" and "no." Not, surely, as long as they remain foster parents for the agency, since in such a relationship the agency must exercise responsibility. In certain cases, yes, where a child is legally unavailable for adoption, or where foster parents are willing to take responsibility for a foster

child throughout his minority but not to consider his children their grandchildren or allow him to inherit equally with their own children. I believe that Mr. Weissman has done us a real service in opening up the possibility of using guardianship for the child in long-time care where adoption is not feasible. I think it offers, as well, a very real challenge to our skills; for if we are to think of possible permanent guardianship as a result of foster care we will need to determine earlier and more exactly whether a child is coming to us for a short time or on a more permanent basis. We will need to have ready a new type of foster home, the potential guardianship home, which may have very different qualities from the home we can use for the care of children who may return to their parents. All of this will, I think, be to the good. Yet it seems to me that there will often be a time during which the agency, in default of anyone closer to the child and capable of acting for him, will have to be responsible for him. In some cases of not very rewarding children, I fear, no other guardian will develop. If we see guardianship as implementing responsibility, then better the agency than some indifferent stranger.

Every child, we have said, should have a guardian, and that brings me to the question of the magnitude of the job of insuring that this is so. Mr. Weissman estimates that 10 percent of children are without parents or are permanently separated from them. I can readily believe that 10 percent of child recipients of old age and survivors insurance or of veterans benefits are in these circumstances. Approximately the same percentage rules in the ADC, but these are groups in which one would expect a far higher percentage of children with neither parent, since in the very nature of these programs one parent is already absent, dead, or incapacitated. I also realize that there are more such children than social agencies are aware of—older children; those with relatives able and willing to support them; "gift" children in our Negro society; those in unlicensed boarding homes; and potential independent adoptions. Yet I find it hard to believe that with the widespread knowledge of benefits, aid, and services for children that already exists in Louisiana, the 15,000 children away from home that we can identify through public, private, and national agencies represent less than a

sixth of those who are in need of guardianship. If so, we are very far from being a welfare state, despite our reputation. And for these children to work out guardianship would be a tremendous job but not one which would be impossible if we had such a children's code as I have outlined. In many cases the choice of guardian would be obvious and confirmed by long agency knowledge of conditions. If this is, as I believe, a basic human need, we need to be doing something about it.

The Quest for Economic Security— Whose Responsibility?

I. A POINT OF VIEW FROM MANAGEMENT

By MARION B. FOLSOM

ECONOMIC SECURITY in recent years has been considered in its narrow sense of financial protection against major hazards, such as accidents, sickness, unemployment, premature death, and dependency in old age. The responsibility for providing this protection is divided among the individual, the employer, and the government. The question concerns the extent of the responsibility of each.

Regardless of who provides the protection, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that real security can be achieved only through production. Goods and services furnished to those who are unable to work because of disability, unemployment, or old age must be obtained from those who are producing. If we are to provide more goods and services to nonworkers, those who are working must produce more. Otherwise, everybody's standard of living would fall.

On the other hand, if our productivity continues to increase it is a problem for society as a whole to determine how this increase should be distributed—whether a higher proportion of the output should go to those who are unable to work or whether the producers should get all the benefits which would come from their efforts. Likewise, it must be determined what proportion is to go to each of the nonproducing groups—the young, the disabled, the unemployed, the aged.

There is no easy solution to this problem, and the proportions

will naturally vary as basic conditions change. The goal, however, should be to increase production so that all groups can benefit.

In its broadest sense, economic security for the individual means regular employment at good wages during productive years, as well as protection against the major hazards. While the individual's success is determined by his own efforts and capabilities, his security is dependent upon the condition of the economy of the whole country. Attainment of the goal of stable, productive employment at a high level depends upon action of all groups in the economy—businessmen, workers, farmers, consumers, and the government.

The Federal Government, because of its control over the monetary system and its taxing powers, has a great responsibility in setting up the right conditions in which these groups can function. With the present debt of over \$250,000,000,000 and Federal expenditures representing 20 percent of national income, it is more important than ever that government policies be sound. It likewise calls for an objective approach by all groups to what is good for the economy as a whole and not for the special interest of any one group.

The steady rise in productivity over the years has enabled us to improve the standard of living and at the same time give a larger share of the income to those who are unable to work. The record of American industry in this respect is an impressive one. Evidence is available on all sides to show the improvement in the standard of living of the people—now the highest of any country. We see it in the increased consumption of goods of all kinds, in better nutrition and diet, in better housing, in the use of mechanical appliances, in better education, in more time for leisure and recreation.

Real wages, that is, wages measured in terms of what money received will buy, have increased more than fourfold in the last seventy-five years. In 1875 the average nonagricultural worker was paid about 32 cents an hour (in 1949 prices). Today he receives \$1.40.

The current output per worker per year is four times that of 1875, yet the hours of work have declined from sixty-six to forty. This improvement has been achieved by increasing the capital investment per worker (that is, by providing more and better tools),

by better methods of production and management, and by improvement in training and skill of the labor force.

The basic cause, however, of this achievement is our free economy with its emphasis on individual initiative and incentive. The individual is free to go into any line of work he chooses and to enjoy the benefits of his own efforts. Each of the 4,000,000 independent business concerns is free to make its own decisions as to the product it makes or the service it performs. Competition between these concerns, large and small, local and national, promotes the general progress.

If in our effort to provide more security we interfere with this freedom of the individual or reduce the incentive to produce more, we will defeat our purpose. Already there is evidence that the rise in productivity in the last decade has been at a lower rate than in previous decades.

New factors make the problem of raising the standard of living more difficult than in the past. First, we have this demand on all sides for more benefits to those who are unable to work. Some of this demand is probably justified. It is also true that in spite of our general progress there are still many families with incomes which do not provide a decent standard of living.

A second factor is the large sums of money which are necessarily being spent on national defense and corollary items, such as the foreign aid program. These expenditures reduce the goods available for consumers and for increasing plant facilities. At the same time, Federal expenditures for domestic purposes have increased. As a result, taxes are much higher than any we have experienced before, except in wartime. We have reached the point where over 25 percent of national income is going into taxes, Federal, state, and local. Our present tax system is already having serious effects upon incentives and upon the funds which are available for investment in new ventures and for plant expansion.

Even with high tax rates and prosperous conditions, the Federal Government is operating with an annual deficit of about \$5,000,000,000. It is obvious that we cannot finance larger benefits to non-producers from Federal revenues without great risk. The question arises as to whether reductions will not have to be made in these and

other domestic expenditures, as long as defense expenditures must continue at such high levels. A continued government deficit will lead to a cheapening of the dollar, which will reduce the protection afforded by all security plans, private and public.

There is opportunity for improvement in our standard of living, but because of these factors we will have to do a better job in increasing productivity than in the past. This can be done only by the combined efforts of all groups in the community, under sound over-all government policies. Government policies and programs should not weaken the incentives to produce more, and should interfere the least with the freedoms which have been so largely responsible for our past success.

Until comparatively recent years, the Federal Government did very little in this field of security. Under our system of individual initiative and responsibility, the individual has done a good job in looking out for himself. For example, at the end of 1949 the liquid savings in the hands of individuals, such as cash, bank deposits, and investments, amounted to over \$175,000,000,000. The growth of life insurance shows graphically how individuals can protect themselves without government intervention. There are now \$200,000,000,000 of life insurance in force by individual companies—an average of \$4,800 per family. There has been rapid growth in voluntary pension plans. There are now over 12,000 private plans covering about 5,000,000 employees. Over half of the workers in industry receive protection under voluntary sick benefit plans; millions are covered under the voluntary hospital insurance and medical care plans.

In spite of this very encouraging progress, however, recent years have shown a need for governmental action. It has always been true that the government, usually at the local level, would step in to prevent serious hardship, but the shift from a rural to an industrial, urban society has brought about a change in the security problem. The family is no longer an economic unit. It is more difficult for a family to take care of its members when they are out of work or aged.

If we are to maintain our system of free economy and derive the benefits from it, the prime responsibility of providing security must

continue to be the individual's. The employer can assist the individual in obtaining protection against the major hazards. The government's function is to see that there is a basic floor of protection to prevent dependency and yet not reduce the incentive of the individual to work and save. The methods which the government adopts will have far-reaching effects upon our economy. If the program should cause large numbers to feel that they can lean on the government for support rather than depend upon their own efforts, we will undermine the foundation of our progress.

The social workers are in the key position to assist in the formulation of sound plans and to prevent the adoption of plans which would interfere with our incentive system. They should be careful not to form pressure groups to demand special benefits without careful study of the long-run effect which these plans might have upon our basic system.

How can these general principles be applied to specific social security programs, such as the old age insurance, unemployment insurance, and health insurance?

Old age insurance.—We are now at a crucial point in the solution of the financial problems of the aged. Those of us who worked on the original Social Security Act of 1935 fully expected that by 1950 the contributory old age insurance plan would be the chief reliance for taking care of the aged. We saw the need for the old age assistance plan at the start but hoped that it would soon be relegated to a minor part. Unfortunately, this has not been the case. The insurance plan has not been extended to all those gainfully employed as originally contemplated. The benefits have not been kept in line with wages and cost of living.

The fears which many of us had about the old age assistance plan have been more than realized. In many states a high percentage of the aged—over 80 percent in one state—qualify for benefits, through lax qualification rules. The Federal Government has encouraged this laxity by contributing an increasingly higher proportion of the grants. The size of the grants and the qualification rules have become political issues.

The cost of old age assistance has increased rapidly, from \$430,000,000 in 1939 to \$1,300,000,000 in 1949. Of this cost in 1949 the

Federal Government's share was \$900,000,000. There will undoubtedly be a tendency in the future for more states to relax their eligibility rules so that they will not be so out of line with other states. If this happens the cost of the program will increase even more rapidly than in the past.

The greatest objection, however, is the principle of the plan and its long-run effect upon the economy. Under the assistance plan we tell a person, in effect, that if he does not provide for his old age he will be supported by the government, and that those who have saved will be taxed to provide this support. It is just the reverse of the incentive system.

If something is not done soon to correct the situation, we probably will end up by abandoning the insurance plan for either the assistance relief plan or the free pension method. The free system would have the same defects as the relief system and, in addition, would cost more because there would be no means test applied.

The obvious solution, of course, is to extend and improve the Federal old age and survivors insurance plan. This contributory insurance plan fits well into our economic system, with contributions and benefits depending upon the individual's earnings. If the original objective is maintained, that is, to provide a basic layer of protection, it will not interfere with the incentive of the worker to save.

It is hoped that early action will be taken by the Senate so that the plan can be extended and benefits improved by the first of 1951. Those of us who served on the recent Advisory Council on Social Security appointed by the Senate Finance Committee believe the plan should be extended to practically all those gainfully employed, including those who are now covered under other governmental plans. Of course, these plans could be adjusted so that the worker would not lose any benefits.

The question arises as to what level of benefits the government insurance plan should provide. Employers, generally, are in favor of increasing the benefits substantially but feel that adequate benefits can be paid with the present wage base of \$3,000. A monthly benefit of 50 percent of the first \$100 of monthly wage as provided in the House bill, plus 15 percent of the next \$150, would provide

benefits somewhat higher than the House bill. This would seem to be a fair compromise.

Under this proposed formula, a worker retiring soon who averages \$250 a month would receive a monthly benefit of about \$72.50 if single and \$109.00 if he has a wife over sixty-five. This would represent 43 percent of the average wage for the married man. Such a formula would seem to be adequate.

The question will remain as to how to reduce the old age assistance load. First, the proportion of Federal grants should be frozen at the present level and not increased as provided in the House bill. Secondly, the qualification rules should be liberalized so that the new groups brought into the insurance system would soon become eligible. Thirdly, the Federal Government would specify that none of its grants for old age assistance would be given to persons who are receiving insurance benefits. If it were necessary, the states could, of course, supplement the benefit.

This program would not prevent increases in cost of the assistance plan but before many years the load would taper off. It has been suggested that minimum benefits be paid under the insurance plan to everyone over sixty-five regardless of whether they have contributed. Such a plan is apt to undermine confidence in the insurance plan, and it might easily lead to universal free pensions.

Private pension plans.—With the recent widespread discussion of private pension plans, the question naturally arises as to the respective fields of the government plan and voluntary plans.

Aged persons do not need so large an income after retirement to maintain their standard; the children are grown and the home generally paid for, and other expenses can be reduced. Those who have had considerable experience with pension plans feel that for the workers in the lower wage groups a combined annuity from the government and private plans approximating 50 percent of pay is about right. For the middle group a rate of around 45 percent would be adequate, with lower percentages for the higher salary groups.

Benefits of about the level of H.R. 6000 would go a long way toward meeting the pension problem of companies located in certain sections of the country and in small cities and towns where liv-

ing costs are lower. Companies in these sections might find it necessary to have a supplementary plan for those in the salaried groups only. In large industrial centers, however, supplementary benefits for the higher paid worker will also be necessary.

Some people are suggesting that benefits under the government plan should be high enough that companies even in industrial centers would not need a supplementary plan. Such action would be a departure from the basic principle underlying the government plan, which is to provide only minimum protection to prevent dependency. This should be the extent of the government's obligation. It is interesting to know that the Socialists of Great Britain do not favor going beyond this point. Their plan at present provides for the worker whose wife is sixty a maximum benefit of 42 shillings a week, which represents about 35 percent of the average monthly wage of factory workers in England.

Some are concerned that the spread of supplementary plans will result in an uneven pattern for pensions, with some workers being better off than others. But these people forget that a uniformity of benefits or wages is not an essential of our system. The needs vary widely with the type of industry and its location. As long as there is a basic protection, little harm and probably good would result from variation between companies and industries. We have always had such variation in the past.

Even with the increase of benefits under the Social Security Act and with widespread adoption of private pension plans, there will still be strong incentive for the individual to save during his lifetime. In few cases will the combined pensions exceed 50 percent of his pay, and if he wants to maintain his standards and enjoy comfort in his old age, additional income will be necessary.

Unemployment.—Protection against involuntary unemployment is also the divided responsibility of the individual, the employer, and the government. The Federal Government's chief responsibility, as stated above, is to adopt sound, over-all policies in regard to the budget, taxes, and money supply. The objective should be to obtain high levels of employment without wide fluctuations and at the same time preserve the productivity and freedom of the economy. Specific measures for achieving this objective have been sug-

gested by the Committee for Economic Development and other organizations.

The individual's responsibility is to obtain adequate education and training to prepare himself for productive employment, and to apply his energies and abilities to the greatest extent. He must practice thrift as a protection against the hazards of illness and unemployment as well as old age.

The employer's responsibility is to strive to increase employment opportunities and to provide stable, year-round employment for his work force. Many companies in many different industries, through planning and effort, now provide regular employment to a high degree. Great progress is being made in this direction. The experience-rating provisions of the state unemployment compensation laws have served as a strong incentive for these efforts to iron out fluctuations in employment.

In most states the unemployment compensation systems are now functioning fairly well. The payment of benefits of \$1,100,000,000 in 1946 and \$1,700,000,000 in 1949 were undoubtedly important factors in preventing greater decline in business in those two years. Without the system, payments would have been made only to unemployed workers who had qualified for relief. The good effect of these unemployment benefit payments was particularly noticeable in some smaller communities that were hard hit by cutbacks in local industries.

Under the original program most states paid weekly benefits of 50 percent of wages up to a maximum of \$15. Along with the increase in wages during the years there has been a steady increase in the maximum weekly benefits payable. Now only two states have a maximum below \$20; 65 percent of the covered workers are in states which provide a maximum of \$25 a week or more.

There has also been considerable progress in increasing the duration of benefits. Seventy-six percent of the covered workers are now entitled to a maximum of twenty-one weeks or over and 48 percent of the covered workers to a maximum of twenty-six weeks.

If progress continues as in recent years, it would not be too much to expect that before long most of the regularly employed workers would be protected with a maximum of at least \$25 a week for

twenty-six weeks' duration. It would not seem necessary to go much beyond this point to achieve the objectives of the system.

Normally, most workers would be able to obtain employment during the twenty-six weeks; in long depressions, however, many workers would exhaust their benefits before finding employment. In such periods some method other than unemployment insurance would be necessary. The unemployment insurance system should not be expected to meet this risk.

The purpose of the system is to pay benefits for a limited period to regular workers who become unemployed involuntarily because of lack of work. It is not the purpose to pay benefits to those who have been employed for only a short time, or to those who quit their jobs voluntarily without good cause, or who lose their jobs because of misconduct, or who refuse to accept suitable work. Nor is it intended that benefits should be paid to those who leave the labor market.

Because of the publicity which has been given to cases that seem to involve abuses of the system, the state administrators are giving increased attention to the problem of improper payments. It has been proposed that the Federal law be amended to include certain standards as to the amount and duration of benefits and disqualification provisions which the state laws would have to meet to qualify for the tax credit. There has naturally been considerable opposition to this proposal. Many employers and state administrators fear that the establishment of such standards would lead inevitably to a completely federalized system. They feel that conditions vary so widely in different sections that it is neither feasible nor desirable to establish one pattern for the country as a whole.

There has been a great improvement in unemployment compensation benefits during the past twelve years, and this improvement will undoubtedly continue. It is believed that sounder progress will be made by having this improvement come naturally rather than being forced by Federal action.

Federal action is needed to extend coverage to employees of concerns hiring less than eight workers and to other groups. Federal action should also be taken to return to the states a larger proportion of the funds collected for administrative purposes, and to con-

tinue the Federal loan fund to assist states whose funds may become depleted.

Unemployment compensation is a matter which can best be administered by the states to meet local conditions. With the concentration in recent years of so many functions in the Federal Government, it would be a serious mistake to take away from the states any of the responsibility for the administration of a system which can be handled satisfactorily by them.

Illness.—Heretofore, the individual has had the responsibility of providing financial protection against illness and nonoccupation disability. This is natural in our free economy. Large numbers of individuals are now protected under voluntary insurance plans. At the beginning of 1949, commercial insurance companies and non-profit plans covered 61,000,000 persons against hospital expense, 34,000,000 against surgical expense, and 13,000,000 against medical expense. Also, 33,000,000 workers, or over half of the labor force, were covered under plans to provide against loss of income due to illness. Many of these plans are jointly financed by employers and workers.

There has been a rapid growth in these voluntary plans in recent years, and progress will undoubtedly continue. The logical course at present would be to encourage the further growth of voluntary prepayment plans rather than to resort to compulsory government insurance.

Five states now have compulsory systems for payment of temporary cash sickness benefits. Under the New York State plan, which in my opinion is the best so far enacted, the payment of cash sickness benefits is made compulsory, but an employer is given the option of operating his own plan if it measures up to the state requirements, to insure it with an insurance company, or to be covered under the state fund. The law will cause very little change in most of the existing plans.

The New York State law will involve the minimum of state administration as the bulk of employees will be covered by individual company plans. It thus avoids building up a large bureaucracy which would be inherent in a monopolistic state or Federal plan. If other states follow the New York pattern, this protection could

be provided on a sound basis without disrupting private plans or the business of insurance companies and with a minimum amount of administrative burden placed upon government.

This is a field which should be left to the states. It would be extremely difficult to operate a Federal system on the New York pattern. Any other type would result in scrapping thousands of company plans and existing state plans.

Any action at this time by the Federal Government in setting up compulsory systems for hospital, surgical, or medical care would be ill-advised. On the other hand, all groups—doctors, employers, workers, and the public—should cooperate in improving and extending the existing voluntary plans. It would be particularly helpful, for example, to have surgical plans put on a service contract basis rather than an indemnity basis. Such plans could be offered workers without much increase in premium and would have a much wider appeal. If a concerted drive were made to extend these voluntary plans, the greater part of this protection could be handled privately. The wide coverage of group life insurance plans offers a good parallel.

Real security can be achieved only through production. Our economy, with emphasis on individual initiative and incentive, has provided a higher standard of living than in any other country. There is opportunity for further improvement, but large defense and other government expenditures make the problem more difficult than in the past. It is all the more important that in our quest for economic security we do not adopt programs which will reduce the incentive of the individual to work and save. The prime responsibility of providing security will continue to be the individual's. The employer can assist the individual in obtaining financial protection against the major hazards. The government's function is to see that there is a basic floor of protection. But the Federal Government's chief responsibility is to adopt sound over-all policies in regard to budget, taxes, and money supply which would promote progress.

II. A POINT OF VIEW FROM LABOR

By NELSON H. CRUIKSHANK

THE PROBLEM of economic security is as old as society itself. It is not uniquely a problem of our time though it is accentuated by the complex nature of modern industrial society. Even ancient Rome made free corn available to relieve famine, and in Charlemagne's empire the parishes were made by law responsible for their poor. The Romans too invented the earliest form of insurance in their burial societies, and the guilds of medieval times undertook to provide some group security for their members. Employees' mutual benefit societies were the forerunners of our present trade union organizations.

The quest for security is also by no means confined to those who work for wages. Businessmen who venture their capital certainly do not do so because they are fond of taking risks but because the security promised by larger accumulations of capital is prominent among their motives for profit. Our nation was founded largely by men who followed the promise of security that was offered by the availability of land in the new country.

The question as framed by the subject "The Quest for Economic Security—Whose Responsibility?" can be very easily answered in its broadest sense. The economic security of the nation rests in its natural resources and in the human resources available to turn these into goods which can be consumed by its people. In a country as richly endowed as ours with natural resources that means simply that ultimately our economic security rests on the ability and the willingness of people to work and to produce consumer goods. Working people realize this as much as any other group in the country. Contrary to the claims of some propagandists, there is no group that knows better from experience that in the long run people cannot get something for nothing. They sometimes wonder why those who take it upon themselves most frequently to remind us that we have to work for what we get are from that group which

because of inherited wealth or other lucky circumstances do the least work for what they get.

Accepting the fact that, by and large, economic security is achieved through the application of effort, it has long been recognized that unregulated economic activity applied in response to the hope of high reward or the spur of want does not provide security for all, or, in the long run, even for the group as a whole. There need to be rules and regulations, and, in large part, the institution of government was developed to meet the need of establishing the rules under which economic activity should be carried on in order that it be conducted in terms of the largest good to the greatest number.

The answer that ultimately economic security rests on a people's ability and willingness to work is too simple. Even if the group as a whole achieved a high level of security, there remain risks which confront individuals—risks which they cannot meet entirely by their own efforts. For those in the stream of economic life the basic risks to them and their families is the loss of income or earning capacity arising from one of these contingencies over which they have no control. These major threats are the following: (1) accident and illness; (2) death of the breadwinner; (3) old age; (4) unemployment; (5) cost of medical care.

It is not possible here to deal fully with all of these—or, for that matter, with even one of them. However, I am sure that I can assume a very general understanding of the programs now in operation as well as those that have been proposed to meet these risks. I shall confine myself to pointing out one or two of the major issues that are before the people of this country in each of these areas and to submitting the thesis that the method of social insurance provides the appropriate means for meeting the bulk of the problem of insecurity. I say the bulk and not the whole because social insurance cannot meet the entire problem of insecurity. There will always be need for a residual program of aid available to those who for one reason or another are not in the insurance program.

The attempt to meet the risks to family income arising from accident and illness represents our earliest experience with social insurance. For over forty years we have had a program of workmen's

compensation which is now in effect in every state and territory. However, the coverage of this type of insurance is confined to accidents or illness related to the worker's employment. Disability of this kind represents only about 5 percent of all such illness or disability. We are therefore attempting to provide temporary disability insurance, and programs are now in operation in five states. The main issue here is whether such insurance should be provided through a single state fund or whether this type of protection represents an appropriate field for private investment. We are firmly convinced that the only just and equitable program is the publicly operated program.

First, we believe that if the state lays the requirement on each employer to provide such protection for his employees the state must likewise provide a nonprofit agency in which he can insure. The argument that a choice between private or public insurance offers that possibility to employers has been proven to be without merit since nowhere has the problem of adverse selection been solved. The state funds inevitably come out with the poor risks with the private insurance carriers taking the cream; attempts to meet this situation by imposing standards have only resulted in administrative complications that threaten the entire program. In the field of workmen's compensation still more than half of every premium dollar goes into the coffers of the private insurance companies. While much has been done to promote safety and reduce risks in which private companies have had their share there is no logical justification for the enormous take of the private corporations. What justification there may be for private insurance carriers in the field of workmen's compensation does not apply to disability insurance since the preventive measures available in the accident and industrial health field are not available to employers in the field of general health.

The social security amendments contained in H.R. 6000 also provide for insurance against total and permanent disability. We trust that this will be in the legislation finally enacted, for the old age and survivors insurance program is the only one of the twenty-some insurance programs now operated by the Federal Government which does not provide such protection.

We can conveniently speak of the risks to income arising from the death of the breadwinner and old age since our single comprehensive Federal insurance program combines these two. It is both an old age and a survivors insurance program.

The problem of old age security is paramount now. It has been brought sharply to the public attention as a result of two major factors: one, the inadequacies of the Federal insurance system; and two, the decisions of the National Labor Relations Board to the effect that demands for retirement programs and pension plans are a legitimate subject for collective bargaining. A third factor that brings the subject into the foreground is the rather sudden realization that we have now and will have to an even greater extent in the future a larger proportion of older people in our population.

One result of this is a reduction of the ratio of the number of people in the normal working age span to those beyond that span. In 1920 for each person over sixty-five there were thirteen between the ages of twenty and sixty-four. Today there are only eight in the latter group for each one beyond sixty-five. There is scientific evidence that fifteen years from now the ratio will be one to six, and good reason to believe that by the end of the century the ratio will be only four or five in the working age span to each one beyond the normal retirement age.

These facts would present a gloomy picture for the future were our economy less dynamic in character. However, our inventive genius does not give any evidence of failure to keep on developing new processes at a geometric rate of increase. Neither our managerial ability nor our labor productivity presents any evidence of having reached its peak, and there is no reason for doubting our capacity to produce the goods and services necessary to meet the needs of such an increasing proportion of the population removed from the economically self-supporting because of age.

Here again the main issue resolves about the question as to whether we should place our main reliance on private arrangements or on public institutions for meeting the problem. The question appears in a somewhat different form than it does in other areas, but it is still essentially the same issue.

We in the American Federation of Labor are coming rapidly to

accept the view that our main reliance for old age security must be in a public system of contributory social insurance. The appropriate area for negotiated private pension plans is confined to meet particular and special problems applicable to relatively few special situations, such as those where the nature of the employment demands an earlier retirement age than that generally required. Without elaboration the main reasons for our taking this position are as follows:

1. Privately negotiated plans tend to decrease the mobility of labor by tying the worker to one employment for a long period of time.

2. Any widespread application of private plans which are properly funded would tie up capital in a manner that is not in the best public interest.

3. While the cost of such plans would be for the most part ultimately passed on to consumers, the security afforded under them is not equally available to all workers. The availability depends on factors a number of which are of a fortuitous nature, such as the size and stability of the enterprise and the character of the business. For example, it is not possible except perhaps in a few metropolitan areas for the workers in the building and construction trades to negotiate such plans with their employers, but building tradesmen will be called on to pay for the plans negotiated by mine or textile workers.

This same issue appears in the question of the adequacy of benefits. The problem of economic security is not met by a minimum program designed simply to remove the need for public assistance. A worker whose average income has been three or four hundred dollars a month is not made secure by a program whose benefits represent as little as 15 or 20 percent of his past earnings. Security is not attained when an individual is assured of enough to purchase the bare necessities in his declining years. He is not assured until he is provided some means of maintaining his standard of living. This is the crux of the question of the wage base. It may appear as a purely technical question, but it is the heart of the issue. The benefit formula, for example, which Mr. Folsom proposed to the Senate Finance Committee, while it represents a considerable

liberalization for those in the lower income groups, does not provide security for those having higher earnings.

Under Mr. Folsom's formula the primary monthly benefit of a retired man who had averaged \$200 per month earnings would represent 32.5 percent of his past wages. The benefits of a man who had averaged \$400 a month in wages would be only 18.1 percent of his past wage. This fails to insure his standard of living.

Put it another way: the \$400-a-month man would pay into the system 250 percent the amount paid by a \$100-a-month worker, but he would receive only 76 percent more in benefits. If we are going to go that far toward the European system of flat benefits it will be impossible to maintain the interest of American workers in a contributory system. They will demand either employer-financed systems or government plans financed out of general revenues.

We believe strongly that any sound system of insurance of income in old age should be a part of our whole incentive system so characteristic of the American way of life. We encourage people to remain out of the labor market in order to secure an education. We tell young men to accept a lower wage during a period of apprenticeship in order to learn a skilled trade so that they may have higher incomes in middle life. The insurance of this income should not be detached from these incentives. If they are, then the pressures of supplementary plans through collective bargaining will be increased, and, inadequate though they are, they will be demanded by the better organized and better paid workers.

The recent rise in unemployment to nearly 5,000,000 has brought the question of unemployment insurance again sharply to the public attention. The Advisory Council to the Senate Finance Committee, on which I have the pleasure of serving with Mr. Folsom, looked at the present Federal-state unemployment insurance program and noted five major deficiencies:

1. Inadequate coverage: only seven out of ten employees are now protected.
2. Benefit financing which operates as a barrier to liberalizing benefit provisions.
3. Irrational relationship between the contribution rates and the cyclical movements of business. The present arrangements call

for high contribution rates in periods of unemployment and low rates in periods of high employment, contrary to the principle of laying up reserves in good times to meet the demands of hard times.

4. Administrative deficiencies.
5. Lack of adequate employee and consumer participation in the program.

Those of us who represent the working people who have to rely on the unemployment compensation program for a degree of security in the face of the possible loss of their jobs feel that there are even more serious deficiencies. We are convinced that the present method of financing through employer experience rating provides a direct motivation for reducing the effectiveness of the program. The fact that in 1949 sixteen out of every hundred people who applied for unemployment compensation and who had earned the wage credits necessary to establish a bona fide connection with the labor market were found ineligible for benefits indicates that the state laws have been so designed as to destroy the basic purposes of the program.

We have never been convinced that the stability of employment was sufficiently subject to the control of the individual employer to warrant tax reductions in the amount provided under the experience rating provisions. We are now getting support for this view from the employers themselves. During the war period, employers were eager to claim that the steady employment which characterized that period was a result of their own effort. Through experience rating about \$6,000,000,000 in tax reductions and tax rebates were given employers under these provisions of the state laws—more than the total amount paid out in benefits to the end of 1949. Now, however, with unemployment on the increase, employers are saying that it is due to factors over which they have no control, and they are pressing the state legislatures to reduce benefits and to make the eligibility and disqualification provisions more stringent.

We are convinced there is a further weakness in this program inherent in its delegation to the states. This is not only because the problems of employment and unemployment are essentially national in character but because state legislatures are simply not as

representative of the whole people's interests as is the national Congress. It has been fifty years since many states have reapportioned their representation with the result that we find for the nation as a whole 41 percent of the population living in rural areas electing 75 percent of the legislators. In New Jersey, for example, four fifths of the population are in eight urban counties electing eight senators; one fifth of the population, in thirteen rural counties, elects thirteen senators. In California, 39 percent of the population elects 2.5 percent of the state senators. The claim that the state legislatures are "closer to the people" is pure tommyrot. It is not a matter of geographic proximity, it is a matter of responsiveness to the people's needs.

One of the most serious threats to the security of the American family against which there is no adequate protection is the high and unpredictable cost of medical care. Medical science has made great progress both in this country and abroad, and startling new diagnostic, preventive, and curative techniques have been developed. But medical costs rise with medical proficiency. With the income of four out of five American families at less than \$5,000 a year, and with over one half of them less than \$3,000, both a serious illness and the burden of proper preventive measures are beyond their financial reach.

It is now generally agreed that there is only one answer to this problem and that is the spreading of the risk through insurance. The economic facts of life have compelled even the American Medical Association to embrace the principle of "voluntary" insurance, which in 1935 they hysterically labeled "socialism, communism inciting to revolution." The only real question before the American people is what kind of insurance. This issue has been further confused by labeling the one approach "voluntary," with all the favorable connotations of voluntarism in a democratic society adhering to the term, as opposed to "compulsory," with the unfavorable connotations attached to it. This is not the real issue. The real issue is a public versus a private insurance approach. Many of the great national organizations representing the consumers of medical care, including consumers' organizations, national cooperatives, and all branches of organized labor, have accepted the

idea that only a completely comprehensive system, which is available only through a governmental program, can meet the problem. Each passing day of burdensome medical bills, of unmet health needs, of desire for security against the economic risk of illness, is bringing additional support for a national health insurance program as the real issues are understood.

The issue has been further confused by references to what is called "socialized medicine." "Socialized medicine," as President Truman said in his message to Congress, "means that all doctors work as employees of Government. The American people want no such system. No such system is here proposed." As a matter of fact, any attempt to socialize medicine would find the American Federation of Labor foremost among those opposing it. What we propose to do is simply to extend the proven principles of contributory social insurance to meet this acute need.

We would not be opposed to the so-called "voluntary" or private insurance approach if there were any chance that it would meet the real need. Some twenty years of experience, however, have given adequate evidence that it is not, and never will be, able to solve the problem. It cannot cover either enough people or enough services. The Blue Cross plans, for example, are good so far as they go, but they cover only hospitalization. The Blue Shield plans, much advertised by the medical societies which sponsor and control them, are generally limited to surgery and have income limits and other restrictions. The commercial insurance plans do not offer medical service, merely cash indemnities which reimburse the patient for some part of some sickness costs. Actually, they insure the doctor and the hospital and not the patient.

Contrary to the claims that nearly 60,000,000 people are now covered by health insurance, actually only about 3,500,000 have insurance that is anywhere near adequate in protection, and almost all of these are concentrated in industrial areas. The private plans have made almost no headway in serving rural areas.

In meeting this problem, as in the other programs to meet the problem of economic insecurity, we feel that it is necessary that the people turn to the government. In so doing, however, we do not feel that we are handing over the problem of security to any out-

side agency. For the people in a democracy to utilize the instrumentality of government is not equivalent to giving up their own initiative and their own sense of self-reliance. It is not a question in a democracy as to whether people should do things for themselves or whether they should rely on the government, for we hope that we can maintain the American idea that the government is the people and that its instrumentalities offer the most appropriate means of group action and self-help, since it is the one agency, the one organization, of which we are all members. The idea that the government is something foreign to, and separate from, the people of this country is not only misleading propaganda, but a dangerous doctrine, for it undermines the basic tenets of our democratic belief.

We feel, therefore, that with the utmost consistency and sincerity we can say that provision against the risks to our economic security is the people's business and at the same time the people, by their own industry and ingenuity, should provide economic security through government programs. We say this because we believe that in America the people and the government are one, and we have faith that it will be that way for a long time.

III. A POINT OF VIEW REGARDING GOVERNMENT'S ROLE

By JOHN J. CORSON

POLITICIANS may shout their opposition to the "welfare state" as Mr. Justice Byrnes has done. Statesmen such as General of the Army Eisenhower may warn against the "paternalistic state," and lament all government efforts to assure citizens "a full stomach and a warm cloak." The conservatives may argue that the individual can take care of himself, come what may. But all this is as futile as the baying of a hound dog at the ascending moon; the irresistible tide of change is fixing the final responsibility for the security of people squarely on government.

Moreover, the responsibility is not for the security of the aged alone—as the man from Mars who overhears our discussions might assume. The unemployed, the widows and orphans, the disabled and the sick are part and parcel of the responsibility of government. Nor is this responsibility limited to those who are in need. None among us is more insecure than those earning \$200 a month. They are not in need but they are woefully insecure when unemployment, sickness, old age, or death strikes. Need is an anachronism as a measure of security; government's responsibility is to bulwark the security of all its people.

All this is unpopular doctrine. It adds up to the "welfare state." That very term has become a brand of censure. It is uttered by many only with a sneer and a curled lip. But if I read the tea leaves in the cup correctly, the assumption by government of this full responsibility is just as sure as that day follows night.

All this, too, does not deny that there is another and a primary responsibility to be shared by management and labor. It is the responsibility for economic opportunity, the opportunity to maintain ourselves, to advance among our fellows, and to provide for our own security. Today this opportunity rests for most of us, first and foremost, on our ability to get and hold a job. When our grandparents were growing up, there were nearly as many self-employed businessmen as there were employees. In April, 1950, for the first

time in history, we have a society composed predominantly of employees; three out of four workers in the United States work for a boss and for wages.

The jobs they hold are provided by management. The number of jobs and the rewards they will yield depend in principal part upon the enterprise and the imagination of management. The business that provides a steadily growing number of jobs at wages commensurate with the productivity of the workers contributes largely to the security of the American people. If these businesses can, in our competitive free enterprise system, do more—stabilize employment; provide insurance to protect the widows and orphans of workers who die, and sick leave, medical care, hospitalization, and pensions for the disabled and those too old to work—they are contributing more than most businesses can for the security of workers.

In our sort of competitive economy, employers must produce a steadily improved product at the lowest possible price. Organized labor is responsible for seeing that this is not at the expense of workers' welfare. Labor sees to it that wages shall be maintained at the highest practicable level. Labor sees to it that workers are treated as human beings, that conditions of work are satisfactory, that jobs cannot be withdrawn capriciously, and when a business can, that it shall protect workers when they are laid off, when they are sick, and when they are eventually retired. If management and labor do these jobs, they are doing their part. Why, then, cannot the individual provide his own security?

Security in jobs.—There are four reasons. They may be described as the facts of life of an industrialized, urban society. First, our free enterprise economy must be dynamic. New industries come and others go. Well-managed businesses grow and expand. Poorly managed businesses wither and fail. The inevitable consequence is—loss of jobs, insecurity.

But this long-run economic progress must not be bought at the price of needless deprivation, broken families, and handicapped children. Government must do what it can to provide an economic climate in which business will prosper and expand. I shall not argue whether this is to be accomplished by greater and greater spending

or reduced taxes and higher tariffs. My point is simply that government has a responsibility which it cannot avoid.

Having met that obligation, government has the further, and secondary, responsibility for assuring every worker—farm workers and domestics included—that when they cannot work income will be provided for subsistence. These dynamics of economic progress, I submit as the first fact of life that is irresistibly fixing the responsibility for economic security.

Security in cash.—Economic opportunity and economic security were once measured in land, in flocks and physical things. The young man who went west sought opportunity and security in free land and in what he could grow and raise on the land. Today opportunity and security are measured in a single denominator—cash. Cash is almost as essential to the city-dwelling, job-holding worker and his family (and 60 percent of all Americans live in 135 metropolitan centers) as the oxygen that he breathes. He must have a continuing flow of cash for rent, the grocer's bills, the milk bill, to buy water, light, and heat, and to pay the doctors. And he must have cash to buy clothes, to pay bus fares, to buy lunch downtown, to go to the movies, and to pay the baby-sitter.

Stop the wages which bring in cash, and the typical American worker is up against it. We have a traditional belief that any man can make a living if only he will roll up his sleeves and go to work. But that tradition was born of an agricultural people. It means little for the worker who lives in a city flat. He cannot grow food from cement pavements, nor chop down lightposts for fuel. The essentiality of a continuing flow of cash for most Americans is, I submit, the second fact of life that is irresistibly fixing the responsibility for economic security.

Security in savings.—When unemployment, illness, or old age cause wages to cease, there are seldom savings enough to provide security for long. The typical American city-dwelling, job-holding family can save only in cash—not in land or flocks—and, in fact, can save little of that. High taxes and steadily declining interest rates have made the accumulation of sufficient individual savings for old age retirement difficult or impossible. The most recent Federal Reserve Board study of family incomes and savings revealed

that in 1948 the bulk of all American families (53 percent) had incomes under \$3,000. Almost half of these families owned no liquid assets; in simpler words, they had no government bonds, no savings account, and no checking account. Of those who did have some savings, most had less than \$500.

Yet, Herbert Hoover, in August, 1949, voiced the traditional view that "it is out of savings that people must provide their individual and family security." Well, most Americans, the Federal Reserve Board's study makes palpably clear, do not provide their security from savings. We may still talk about "saving for a rainy day," but in the cash economy of 1950 savings are not a practical source of security for most low-income families. And that I submit as the third fact of life in an industrial civilization which is fixing the responsibility for economic security.

Security in the family.—Well, cannot American workers turn for help to their families—their parents, brothers and sisters, or children? Young brides have always found security in the threat that "I'll go home to Mother." Of course, there is no room for daughter in the flat of the typical city worker's family. Moreover, Mother is probably many miles away. Within the few years since 1940, more than a fifth of the total population has moved from the county in which they then lived.

Twentieth-century Americans are a foot-loose lot. Consequently, when unemployment, illness, death, or old age hits, many workers cannot turn to close relatives. When the baby came, in years gone by, the mother or mother-in-law came in to nurse the new mother and the new-born. Now there is a demand for "maternity" benefits—for cash, in short, to pay the nurse or hospital that replaces mother.

Two generations ago the typical family included grandparents, aunts, and uncles, or perhaps a cousin or niece. The family meal used to be a regular and ceremonial gathering of the clan. Now the family is smaller, seldom containing any adult other than the parents. And the family meal has been replaced by a semifree lunch counter. Parents and children eat on the run and eat many of their meals away from home.

Recreation, too, used to be largely a family affair. Now it sepa-

rates father, mother, and children rather than binding them together. In the city, daughter finds her recreation at the school, the corner movie or the Y.W.C.A. Johnnie eats peanuts at the high school ball park or goes hiking with the Boy Scouts. Mother plays bridge, and father plays golf on the municipal course.

Thus for many Americans the home has become a filling station through which they drive daily to obtain shelter and food. Its spiritual values have been reduced, and its economic strength has simply disappeared. Children, instead of being an economic asset as they were on the farm have become a financial burden. Parents who are no longer self-supporting become a dreaded liability for whom there is no place either in the small city flat or in the city worker's cash budget.

The insecurity of 700,000 children whose homes are broken by divorce, desertion, or separation also reflects the inadequacy of the family in providing security. Marriage in contemporary society lasts less often than in the past "till death do us part." In 1950 the number of divorces for every 1,000 marriages is at least twice as great as in 1900.

The most revolutionary effect of the continuing industrial revolution has been the vast changes it has made in the family. As a source of economic security the family "just ain't what it used to be." This inadequacy of the family I submit as the fourth fact of life in our industrial civilization. It too is irresistibly fixing the responsibility for economic security.

Security to be found elsewhere.—Add them together, these facts of life of an industrial civilization—the instability of jobs in our dynamic free enterprise economy, the essentiality of cash for every worker and family, the lack of savings, and the disintegration of the family. Together, they make clear that the old sources of human security no longer do the job.

Where then does the individual and his family turn for security? Neither management nor labor has any obligation to the children whose parents are separated, to the widows whose husbands died from no work-connected cause, or to those who are permanently disabled by illness or accident unassociated with their jobs. In competitive business only a minority of firms can afford the luxury of

helping such unfortunates. A few rich unions may help, but most unions must put first things first—and the deserted children, widows and disabled will not claim first attention.

Management and labor together do have an obligation to provide for the peculiar welfare of some workers. In the heavier and more hazardous industries, where workers cannot continue until they are sixty-five, management and labor may be expected to work out pension arrangements which permit earlier retirement for those who are disabled before they reach the hallowed age of three score and five. In industries and crafts which are being made obsolete, such as the coal mining industry, management and labor must cooperate to provide supplementary provisions for the orderly retirement of surplus workers. In many industrial centers where living costs are higher, workers may logically look to management and labor to provide supplementary pensions; a Congress dominated by rural members will never vote pensions large enough amply to meet urban living costs. Until the Federal Government faces up to the needs of most workers for economic security when ill, management and labor will be pressed to provide subsistence, hospital benefits, and medical care for the sick.

As things stand today government alone can provide the security that families, churches, and charitable agencies did in the past. The pension and welfare programs provided by employers and labor will constitute nothing more than the frosting on the security cake. Government must provide basic security, and this means a frank guarantee of a minimum of well-being for every individual, not alone for one fifth of our people at the bottom of the scale. Such a guaranteed minimum is more than higher unemployment compensation benefits or extended coverage under old age and survivors insurance. It must include:

1. The use of government, without fear or favor, to keep our economy healthy so that there will be steady jobs rather than a series of booms and busts.
2. The assurance that every man, woman, or child who cannot work and is without wages because of age, illness, disability, widowhood, or orphanhood will have built up with his government rights to income for his subsistence.

3. The assurance of essential services for decent living in an urban community, such as day care nurseries, recreation facilities, guidance clinics, and particularly medical care and low-cost housing.

Labor will doubtless press, in the years immediately ahead, for pensions, hospitalization, and medical care for its members. But only the fortunate 10 percent of all workers who belong to a few of the more powerful unions will enjoy these benefits. The veterans' lobby will likely obtain even more generous benefits for all veterans. The Townsendites may link hands with the conservatives—an unholy and perhaps unlikely alliance—and bring about a flat pension for all who are sixty-five. But if American families are to have real security, government, and primarily the Federal Government, must assume the responsibility, must become in fact a "welfare state."

And why not? Those who oppose government's assumption of further responsibility for human security are blinded by three old and obsolete but tenaciously held beliefs. These beliefs are, first, that each individual can and should maintain himself; secondly, that government should do as little as possible, not as much as is needed; and thirdly, that man is at heart a worthless cuss who is perfectly willing to lay down his tools at the slightest hint that someone will care for him.

Those who cling to these beliefs are already part of the past. They should be placed in little museum rooms, marked "the 1900s," and "the 1920s." Help them to free their minds of the tradition and folklore of our simple agricultural past. Then they will understand the facts of life in an industrial civilization. They will see that millions who never sought public aid in days gone by have nowhere else to turn now but to their government.

One final word in postscript. Those of us who would have government assume the security of all our people have a further and serious obligation. It is to assure that our government is democratically equal to the task. Government by pressure groups will certainly produce bankruptcy, never security. A government that takes a substantial share of each person's income to spend as benefits for the people must in fact be a government of the people and by the people.

Have FEPC Laws Increased Opportunities for Negroes?

By HAROLD A. LETT

IT IS UNFORTUNATE that there are not available to us at this time the results of the decennial nationwide inquiry, the 1950 census. Possession of the vast amount of such data showing the many changes in our economy over the past decade would permit the preparation of a clear and convincing report bearing upon the subject under discussion.

Since 1940 our nation has passed through a period of the greatest war and peacetime production in its history; we have engaged in our costliest war; and thus far, five years after the war's end, have waged a reasonably effective defense against postwar economic deflation. Any report as to the degree to which state-enacted Fair Employment Practices Commission laws have altered the course of experience for Negro workers, in contrast to what might have been expected, must reckon with those factors, as well as be dependent, also, upon the particular yardstick that may be employed to measure cause and effect. If we mean by "increased opportunity" a wider employment of Negro workers in unskilled and semiskilled classifications, we would be dealing in one set of values of dubious quality as exhibited in the unhappy experience of Negro workers during and after the first World War. Yet, the degree of success experienced by Negro workers in avoiding discriminatory lay-off, even in unskilled work classifications, would be a factor of real significance.

Then there would be the yardstick of new occupational outlets and levels hitherto unavailable to the minority in question; or the enrollment in trade and vocational schools as a particular kind of index of minority youth's aspirations, growing out of group employment experiences.

In brief, I am confessing that it was not possible to conduct an

independent study on the scope of the United States Census in order to present a scholarly and statistically unassailable thesis proclaiming the omnipotence of FEPC legislation. Rather I shall attempt to present, as objectively as I may, a report of our experiences in New Jersey, our observations in our home state and elsewhere, and such other obtainable data as may bear upon the subject.

It also should be said that it is virtually impossible to draw a sharp line of distinction between FEPC-inspired gains and the carry-over of influences representing investments in good will made in the years past by many instrumentalities. For instance, most of the discriminatory lay-off practices of the past have been eliminated by labor union seniority agreements widely developed in recent years. A second example of good investment has been the increasingly effective programs of the National Urban League and other progressive national organizations. Perhaps what is really important to this discussion is acknowledgment of the interrelationship of the many democratic forces which are causing rapid and healthy changes in intergroup attitudes and in minority group experiences.

The plight of the Negro worker has been presented in many reports of studies conducted in various parts of the nation and over a period of many years. It was our good fortune in New Jersey to have had two widely spaced studies of employment opportunities available to Negro workers, both conducted by competent authorities of the state government, and both pursuing narrow but comparable lines of inquiry into the problem.

The first of these inquiries was summarized in the Annual Report of the New Jersey Commissioner of Labor for the year 1903. Entitled "The Negro in Manufacturing Industries," the Commissioner's report was refreshingly objective in weighing the pros and cons of race relations during a period only forty years after emancipation of the slaves, and at a time still painfully sensitive to Reconstruction experiences.

The report revealed that a schedule containing ten direct questions was mailed to each of 475 manufacturing concerns in New Jersey. Three hundred and eighty-nine firms representing eighty different types of industrial operation responded; these employed

more than 128,000 workers who, in turn, were one half of all workers employed in manufacturing industry.

Two hundred and ninety-two of the 389 firms, representing 75 percent of the sample studied, did not employ Negro workers in any capacity. Eighty-three plants, or approximately 21 percent of the total, did employ Negro workers, who represented 2.5 percent of their 38,000 workers. Fourteen employers, or 4 percent, neglected to give information pertinent to this phase of the inquiry. Stated differently, the 963 Negro workers embraced in this inquiry represented seven tenths of one percent of all the workers engaged in the 389 plants reporting. Negro citizens in New Jersey in 1900 were 3.6 percent of the state's population.

In addition to the compilation of responses from vocational training schools, and a carefully annotated discussion of the varied skills acquired by slave labor in ante bellum days, the report also dealt with the national policies and the local practices of labor unions of those times. Sixty-four international union officials responded to the Commissioner's inquiries. Two of these admitted having constitutional prohibition against Negro members; nineteen stated that there were no legal restrictions, but that no Negroes were members; and forty-three declared themselves, legally and morally, as favorable to equal rights and privileges for Negro and white workers. It was universally acknowledged, however, that the locals really determined how these policies would be implemented.

Questionnaires were sent to 300 local unions in the state, of which number 196 responded. These reported that twenty-two trades or skills were represented in the total responses, only six of which granted any hope for Negro workers and sixteen stated flatly that under no circumstances would Negroes be admitted. Fifty-four Negro workers in New Jersey were cardholders in the 196 American Federation of Labor locals. But that was in 1903!

Thirty-two years later a similar inquiry was launched under the auspices of the New Jersey Department of Institutions and Agencies. Entitled "A Survey of Vocational Opportunities for Negro Workers in New Jersey," the study employed direct field contact rather than mailed questionnaires. The sample consisted of 1,867 business establishments employing twenty-five or more per-

sons, their 334,000 workers constituting 70 percent of all workers in the state employed in the types of businesses studied.

Of the 1,867 businesses visited, 55 percent, or 1,018, did not employ Negro workers in any capacity. Seven hundred and eighty-eight of these had never employed a Negro worker. The consequence was that the Negroes in New Jersey, who were 5.5 percent of the state's population, were but 3.7 percent of the workers employed in business and industry in the state.

With reference to the influence of labor organizations upon Negro employment opportunities, the 1935 study disclosed that the 838 businesses in which Negro workers were found were those in which least effort had been made for unionization. Accordingly, only 1.7 percent of this group of employers held contracts with A.F. of L. unions; 3.8 percent had so-called "company" unions; and 5 percent were identified with the new and growing industrial type of union. In other words, 90 percent of the industries in New Jersey employing Negro workers in 1935 had no form of labor union to bargain for their protection or the protection of their white co-workers.

Would space permit comparative analysis of these two studies, in terms of the industries, occupations, and wages available to Negro workers, it would be significant to note what little change in status as a worker, a citizen, and a social entity the Negro has experienced in this span of thirty-two years. Industrialists and labor leaders voiced the same fears, displayed the same hypocrisies, leaned upon the same clichés, and gave evidence of pursuing the same divisive tactics. Thirty-two years of education in a very enlightened state had done little to alter the climate of human relations within which the freedoms of one large racial minority were being seriously limited.

In the years immediately following the latter inquiry, industrial unionism as promoted by the Congress of Industrial Organizations had made its impact upon the American economy. Its enunciation of national policy was followed by a courageous adoption locally of enlightened, democratic unionism which dared to seek strength through recognition of the mutual needs and aims of all workers. Concurrently, a terribly significant development on the world scene

was Adolf Hitler's rapid rise from obscurity to power. These two completely unrelated phenomena actually prepared America for a decade of self-searching and ideological cleansing not equaled since the days of national debate and conflict on the issue of human slavery.

The world's economic depression yielded before the fierce and insatiable demand for munitions of war. Race prejudice, however, was not willing to yield; that is, not until public opinion had been fanned to such white heat that President Roosevelt issued his Executive Order 8802 outlawing racial and religious discrimination in war production employment, this order later being implemented by creation of the FEPC. Until that official act, America was exhibiting to the world a shocking picture of hypocrisy and intolerance whose significance is not yet fully recognized or understood by a large part of the business and political leadership of the country. In every industrial center in the nation, Negro workers were appealing in vain for employment in plants whose operators, meantime, were complaining of manpower shortages. In New Jersey, an important center in the chemical industry, there were several highly trained Negro engineers and chemists whose services were rejected by every industry in the seaboard area and by several government agencies, all of which were advertising frantically for just such skills as those possessed by these men. In addition to these specialists were thousands of intelligent, industrious workers whose services were declined by industrialists because of their race and religion. As an Urban League secretary, I had thrust upon me during that sordid period in our national history a most confusing, hopeless, and frustrating combination of tasks: arguing futilely with intolerant employers who were more concerned with their prejudices than with their nation's destiny; and, at the same time, attempting just as futilely to persuade young Negroes being held in Federal courts to relent in their bitterness toward a government that would draft them into armed service, yet give them no protection in their quest for jobs, or in their desire for safety in military camps at home and abroad.

There was the further task throughout the country of inducing public-supported vocational training schools to admit Negroes into

training for all types of war-production jobs. Not at all uncommon in the nation was the practice of one New Jersey vocational school which traditionally excluded Negro trainees. Its program was geared to the massive aviation industry for which it was a feeder; and the industry did not employ—and did not intend to employ—Negro workers. Only the FEPC altered this plan and ultimately made it possible for Negroes to train in the school, built and maintained by their tax moneys, and to find employment in the industry. Similarly, other public and private vocational and commercial schools boldly excluded Negro trainees with the self-satisfying argument that it was wasteful to train those whom industry would not employ—evidence of an almost universal acceptance of a pattern of human relations that has served to prove the consummate ease with which education in this field can be resisted.

It is well to note here that war training and war production were well under way for white workers, and their bid for seniority was well advanced, before the first Negroes were admitted in any great number into those same schools and industries.

The Federal FEPC, therefore, became a reality at a time when the production machinery was rolling at high speed and when all had been employed whom industry had seen fit to select and train as the cream of the crop. The first significant manifestation of FEPC effectiveness was the ease with which large industries changed their policies, once official sanction gave them protections which many felt they needed against reprisals. Then there were those who embarked upon programs of token placement, employing only a few Negro workers as visible symbols of compliance. Not until a series of public hearings held up to public notice and criticism the names of discriminating employers was there any widespread effort to comply with the FEPC edict. Then and only then were Negro workers admitted into all levels of skill in the army of production.

As the war ended and the Federal FEPC faced extinction, widespread concern was expressed that postwar lay-offs would follow the old, discriminatory pattern, unless legislatures would provide protection by enacting state FEPC laws. Bills were introduced in

twenty-one state legislatures in 1945 and 1946, but only three received favorable action—New York and New Jersey in April, 1945, and Massachusetts in 1946. Since then, five other states and three municipalities have passed enforceable FEPC laws, while two other states have recognized the principle of the FEPC without providing legal tools for implementation.

Where such laws have been in operation for more than a year, certain well-defined patterns are taking shape as observable results of their influence. First, the inordinate fear with which the idea of the FEPC originally had been greeted has faded away almost completely. I do not mean that all opposition to the law has disappeared. I do mean that even the opposition today is willing to concede that controls have accomplished a number of things without creating the chaos that had been so widely predicted. Secondly, there has not been the stampede by minorities or by so-called "radical" elements to harass employers or labor unions, as we had been so loudly warned.

In each instance, the state agency entered upon its task by arranging conferences with such strategically placed groups as newspaper associations, carefully selected representatives of major industries, employment agency operators, retailers, educators and vocational counselors, and cross-section representation of cultural minorities. From these earlier conferences grew understanding and a spirit of voluntary cooperation that led to many gratifying changes without benefit of formal complaint or other pressures.

Out of such conferences came voluntary change of policy in several financial institutions whose traditional practices of excluding Negro and Jewish workers had involved employment agencies and public school officials in the act of discriminating against high school graduates of these minorities in selection for job referrals. Similarly, in such a conference, agreement was reached which resulted in 98 percent elimination of discriminatory employment advertisements from the newspapers of our state.

Reports issued by the states of New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Connecticut since the first two of these began FEPC operation in 1945, account for thirteen administrative years of experience in fair employment practices enforcement. The combined

experiences of the four agencies account for a total of 2,707 formal complaints received, of which number 2,178, or 80 percent, were lodged against employers, 215 against labor unions, 175 against employment agencies, and 139 against all other respondents. Forty-three percent of these complaints, or 1,182, were dismissed as not sustainable or as withdrawn, and 46 percent, or 1,248, were determined to have had probable cause for action but were adjusted satisfactorily through conference, conciliation, and persuasion. Two hundred and seventy-seven cases were still in the process of investigation or mediation at the end of the last report period.

While it had been anticipated that postwar lay-offs would result in a sharp upturn of complaints, due to the "last hired, first fired" practices of the past, these fears fortunately were not realized, due without doubt to the combined influence of the FEPC regulations and carefully supervised seniority agreements between management and labor. Within very recent months, however, increasing evidence is being noted that reemployment selective methods, used by certain corporations in the current open labor market, are following the old racial patterns. Strangely enough, these selective processes are being designed ostensibly as a means of breaking the hold of union power, with the Negro worker in many instances being exploited as the putative symbol of that solidarity. The use of carefully selected private employment agencies who are willing to do the discriminatory screening for the corporations in question presents a sordid picture of unlawful collusion which undoubtedly will lead to interesting developments in the near future.

By direct influence of FEPC legislation, both through voluntary conference methods and through complaint procedures, Negro workers have entered in reasonably large numbers into occupational fields hitherto closed to them. In the four pioneer states, Negro high school graduates have moved directly into the erstwhile exclusive atmosphere of the largest insurance companies, department stores, and public utility corporation offices, and in many occupational capacities. Negro chemists have appeared in important roles in industrial laboratories; Negro teachers, in public schools formerly closed to their services; and Negro nurses, in all levels of service in the hospitals of the states in question. Perhaps the one

valid test of direct FEPC influence in these advances may be found in the failure of several utility, insurance, and retail corporations to adopt the same liberal hiring practices in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan that are observed in New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Connecticut.

Similarly, we may point to complaint situations and voluntary conference results leading to acceptance and enrollment of Negroes into full membership of unions which have succeeded for years in holding colored workers out of particular craft operations. One brotherhood which attracted nationwide attention by its insistence upon operation of a nonvoting, racial auxiliary has abandoned this philosophy in our FEPC states and has accepted Negroes into full, voting membership and privileges. The constitutions of several other craft unions have been amended to eliminate exclusionary clauses.

If it were possible to sum up in a few words the measure of influence wielded by the law in direct relation to the occupational experiences of Negro workers, it would be to say that these statutes have provided the means whereby the nostrums of the bigots, the fearful, and the exploiters are being exposed to the critical view of the general public, and are being refuted in terms of practical, human experiences. Every successful placement of a qualified Negro worker, whether through conference or complaint processing, accelerates the placement of many more. Charges of racially inferior character, stamina, skill, or adaptability cannot be sustained in the face of such actual experiences.

To even greater degree, the indirect results of FEPC legislation are exerting influences not yet widely recognized. In our culture, the enactment of a law serves a triple purpose over and beyond the enforcement function: that of officially recognizing the need to control a socially undesirable condition; acknowledging the existence of a large body of public opinion sanctioning its control; and creating an atmosphere of social acceptance of a principle within which framework the backward, the hesitant, the fearful, may change their attitudes and practices without fear of reprisal. The passage of such laws, therefore, was greeted widely by editorial comment almost exclusively favorable in tone in the states of their en-

actment. Periodicals published in our FEPC states, and in a few other states as well, are printing stories, articles, features, and advertisements which were considered absolutely impossible a few short years ago. Hollywood has had the courage, not only to eliminate many of the traditional Negro stereotypes from its productions, but to experiment with the so-called "explosive" elements of America's racial dilemma in such films as *Home of the Brave*, *Lost Boundaries*, *Pinky*, and *Intruder in the Dust*, to the end that millions are drawn into emotional identification with the truer aspects of the problem. Jackie Robinson and Roy Campanella are Exhibits *A* and *B* of a wish finding reality in professional baseball, because the FEPC had altered the climate of social acceptance of Negroes in such places of prominence. The law has served almost completely to finish the task of erasing the stereotype of the Negro strikebreaker, created by the kind of employer who struggled to maintain sharp racial cleavages in order to play one group against the other. As implied earlier, some of the same employers now identify the Negro as a symbol of union solidarity and in some few instances are attempting to exclude him as a means of weakening the union.

These indirect influences are reaching deeply into the educational structures of the affected states. It would seem that one of the most important duties of the public school and the state university would be to teach the kinship of all citizens in a democracy; to teach appreciation of their interdependence and their mutually guaranteed rights and privileges. It would seem that the most democratically maintained institutions in the land should have assumed the responsibility of immunizing all American youth against the virus of racial prejudice. I think it may be said without fear of successful contradiction that only in FEPC states has there been developed the kind of emphasis in public education which even partially meets these basic requirements. Since enactment of the original FEPC laws, New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey have taken steps to control the disgusting practice of fixing racial and religious quotas in college admissions. These same states, with Massachusetts, have inaugurated programs, highly publicized in the Springfield Plan, which are bringing carefully planned, integrated, intercultural education into primary and secondary levels of the public school.

In New York and in New Jersey exploratory steps have been taken toward mobilization of research experts in the social science departments of colleges and universities, for coordinated utilization of the research tool in the interest of better human relations. Similarly, the experiences of the respective state departments are being made available to high school guidance teachers and counselors in order that minority group youngsters may have the benefit of inspirational guidance based on healthier, more hopeful reality than has been possible in earlier years. In at least eight states in the Union it is neither legal, practical, nor "good common sense" for a school counselor to discourage a qualified Negro girl from aspiring to be a nurse or teacher or stenographer, or a boy from studying science or engineering. No one will ever know the great harm that has been done to human personalities by the misguided counseling of the past.

These are some of the more noticeable and significant signs of influence toward better human relations, observable in states having FEPC regulations. It would be as unsound and untrue to claim all these advances as direct results of the law as it would be to say that a doctor, unaided by Nature, had effected a cure. Conversely, it would be equally untrue to say that these advances would have been attained without the FEPC. When an infection has been permitted to develop to a troublesome stage, Nature is not in the habit of attacking and clearing up the source of infection without the aid of man-made methods and regulations. A doctor must be called in, else the problem becomes more serious. The virus prejudice is responsible for an epidemic that has become the most insidious threat to our national security in these days of international tension. Its control is no longer a matter of sectional pride, comfort, or convenience, nor an issue of political expediency. False racial concepts and bold adherence to old colonial methods of racial exploitation are socially dangerous and potentially destructive practices which deserve the same recognition and treatment as seditious utterances and acts of high treason.

Eight states in the Union have seen fit to give such recognition. It may require a perspective of a decade or longer, and an extensive and intensive study of considerable magnitude, to draw a sharp line

of division whereby the direct influences of the FEPC laws may be measured. Whether or not such direct measurement may ever be necessary, it is possible to report that the state having such regulations immediately becomes an effective laboratory for study of the phenomenon of discrimination, in which the superstitions, fears, and fallacies of prejudice may be examined judiciously, interpreted educationally, and attacked scientifically. This, it would seem, is a duty which a democracy owes itself.

Chronic Illness—the Nation's Number One Health Problem

By **W. PALMER DEARING, M.D.**

THE TOPIC which I shall discuss is singularly appropriate as a meeting point for public health and social welfare. Chronic illness is the nation's number one health problem. And it may well become the nation's number one social problem by reason of the newer knowledge of treatment and the changing cultural patterns of an aging society.

Appraised on any terms, chronic illness holds first rank as a health problem. The decline of acute infectious diseases over the past fifty years in incidence, severity, and mortality is well known and has been extensively commented upon. During the same period, the volume of chronic illness has grown. In 1944 Perrott¹ estimated from the data of the National Health Survey that approximately twenty-five million Americans were suffering from chronic disease or physical impairment. By reason of changes in the age distribution and size of the population the number has increased by now to at least twenty-six and a half million. If current trends continue the number will continue to increase.

Nearly one million deaths and one billion days of disability result from chronic illness each year in the United States. One third of all illnesses disabling on a given day is due to chronic diseases. Three out of every four hospitalized patients suffer from chronic, or prolonged, illness and 38 percent of all services rendered by physicians are in behalf of the chronically ill. These striking figures have come about in considerable part as a result of the growing number of older people, and they may increase still further as the population over fifty years of age moves up from 33,000,000 today to 51,000,000 during the next generation.

¹ George St. J. Perrott, "The Problem of Chronic Disease," *Psychosomatic Medicine*, VII (January, 1945), 21-27.

The volume of chronic illness and its absorption of facilities and services are indeed spectacular indices of its importance as a health problem. At the same time, advances in medical science and practice have increased the complexity of the problem and the costs of dealing with it. At the turn of the century, medicine and public health possessed virtually none of the techniques now available for the early diagnosis and effective treatment of chronic diseases.

In 1949 Seegal² listed sixteen chronic diseases which medicine can now control in the individual patient by methods of early diagnosis and treatment, all developed since 1906. He identified thirty-five other chronic conditions as subject to partial control by available methods. It is interesting, indeed, that of all the specific curative treatments now available only the following medicaments were known in 1900: specific diet for scurvy and quinine for malaria. Sanatorium care and artificial pneumothorax were known for tuberculosis control, but application of pneumothorax was very limited. Surgical techniques had been developed for a few conditions, such as thyroid disease and certain diseases of the central nervous system, but the lack of diagnostic methods, supportive therapies, and safe anesthetics seriously limited the use of surgery.

This paucity of medical resources fifty years ago is in marked contrast with the battery of diagnostic techniques, medicines, and surgical skills now available. Insulin, hormonal compounds, vitamins, sulfa drugs, antibiotics—all now familiar to the public as well as to the professions—are only the more spectacular aids to progress in the control of chronic disease.

It is interesting that Seegal's article, published in January, 1949, mentioned "rest and gold therapy" as the only available means for controlling rheumatoid arthritis. Within four months, Hench,³ of the Mayo Clinic, reported the miraculous effectiveness of cortisone in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis. On the heels of that news

² David Seegal, Henry Colcher, Richard B. Duane, Jr., and Arthur B. Wertheim, "Progress in the Control of Chronic Illness," *Hygeia*, XXVII (January, 1949), 48-50, 52.

³ P. S. Hench, E. C. Kendall, C. H. Slocumb, and H. F. Polley, "The Effect of a Hormone of the Adrenal Cortex (17-Hydroxy-11-Dehydrocorticosterone: Compound E) and of Pituitary Adrenocorticotropic Hormone on Rheumatoid Arthritis: Preliminary Report," *Proceedings of Staff Meetings of Mayo Clinic*, XXIV (April 13, 1949), 181-97.

came the reports on ACTH (adreno-corticotropic hormone). Although the full significance of these events will not be apparent for many years to come, we can already visualize the possibility of enormous advances in the treatment of such diverse conditions, previously resistant to known methods, as rheumatoid arthritis, leukemia, and nephritis—provided the cost factor can be solved. What is more important, the developments of the year just past give research scientists a powerful research tool and exciting evidence that there may be a common set of related factors in the causation of many obscure diseases.

I have given these sketchy reminders of recent medical progress only to highlight the importance of dealing with chronic illness. When we focus on chronic diseases, however, we find that many social and economic problems are raised. Application of even existing knowledge involves the mass production and distribution of medications and equipment much of which is exceedingly expensive; construction and operation of costly facilities; training and distribution of thousands of personnel, representing both the traditional health and social work professions and categories unheard of fifty years ago. We know, also, that successful treatment of chronic illness and its concomitant problems frequently calls for vocational counseling and retraining, special job placement, and social casework services.

Chronic illness has become the number one health problem, then, not by volume alone, but also paradoxically through increased knowledge about it and of effective methods of treatment. Formerly, it was not accorded priority because there was generally little or nothing to be done. Now, something can be done.

Chronic illness is present among all age groups of the population although unequally distributed. Its effects and its social and economic implications vary with the age of its victims. Within a given age group chronic disease attacks in many different forms and with varying consequences.

Among the 50,000,000 children and young people under twenty years of age there are approximately 3,000,000 suffering from chronic disease or physical impairment. Many of these young people can be treated successfully but often at considerable expense

to their families and to the community. Others, less fortunate, require special educational programs and placement services if they are to lead adjusted, useful lives. Each time the community allows one of these young people to spend his entire life in inactivity, it sacrifices nearly fifty man-years of productive effort and contented living.

The greatest part of the population, 89,000,000 persons, fall in the twenty-to-sixty-four age group, and 18,000,000 of them have one or more chronic disease manifestations. Even though chronic illness in the breadwinner or the homemaker may not be completely disabling it frequently does cause loss of earnings and requires expensive treatment at the period of life when family financial burdens are the greatest. It is known now that serious chronic disease often reduces the economic status of the family and that it may have lasting effects on family organization and aspirations.

Today, there are 11,000,000 persons sixty-five years of age or over in the United States—just less than 8 percent of the population. But these older people have 21 percent of the chronic illness, more than two and one-half times their per capita share. Chronic disease among the older population comes at a time when their incomes are reduced, and the vast majority do not have the resources to obtain the treatment and related services they need. Too frequently they become economic liabilities on children who are trying to provide for their own families.

Serious as it is already, the problem of chronic disease is becoming even more serious as a result of the changing age distribution of the population. Chronic disease prevalence rises sharply after the age of fifty, when one third of the people report one or more such conditions. In 1900 only 13 percent of the population was over fifty years of age; today the proportion is 22 percent; and in another generation it will be closer to 28 percent. Thus, at current rates, there will be nearly thirty million persons with chronic disease by 1980.

Another phase of the chronic illness problem arises from the industrial economy, accustomed as it has been to an ample supply of young, vigorous manpower. Persons disabled by chronic illness are nonproducers. Many who are handicapped though not disabled find

it difficult to hold or obtain jobs. Older persons, already slowed down by age, have an additional handicap when they develop an incurable chronic condition.

Society is making progress in rehabilitating and retraining the handicapped, even some of those in the older age periods. It is being discovered that handicapped and older workers have assets that make them more valuable employees in some positions even than younger people. Nevertheless, society has a long pull ahead before it has guaranteed security, opportunity for employment, and freedom from discomfort to its growing and aging population. These are problems which must concern both the health and social work professions, in order that we may discharge our joint responsibility of providing public leadership and active service.

Social workers see these broad trends in terms of individuals and families, and it is in terms of the individual, the family, in their own communities that the problem of chronic illness will be solved. Social work is an indispensable element in the national effort to alleviate the disastrous effects of chronic illness. Hence, this number one health problem is a direct challenge to the members of the social work profession—a challenge which you are accepting. You are exploring the problem, defining some objectives, and developing an action program.

These are encouraging signs, I believe, of a new attitude toward chronic illness. It is an attitude of hope, emerging to replace the feeling of despair that largely prevails among the professions and the public. The new hope, I am sure, will spring from wider acceptance of a precept nearly two thousand years old: "Bear ye one another's burdens." Applied to chronic illness that precept means nothing less than a full sharing of experience, skills, and resources to solve a common problem.

At the present time, each of the many groups concerned with the medical and social aspects of chronic illness sees the problem largely from its own limited viewpoint. Of course, the social worker, the physician, the hospital superintendent, the health officer, each by himself despairs of making a dent on the relentless progress of chronic disease and its crippling social, economic, and emotional effects. For no one type of service, no one method, can possibly alter

the trends we have been discussing. Reversal of the rising tide of chronic illness and the increasing dependency it causes requires nothing less than a complete integration of our health, social, and economic forces.

For the most part, we are doing a patchwork job. I wish that someone could give us a fair estimate of the number of patients with chronic disability who are getting all the medical, social, and educational services they need to become independent members of the community. We sense that the number must be very small, as compared with the 26,500,000 who have chronic disease or impairment. Health, social, and educational agencies are loaded with "cases"—each receiving a bit of service here, a bit of service there, usually each service without relation to the other.

This is the "burden"—the case load—we must share. In doing so, we will find that our separate skills and resources, welded together, gain in strength and effectiveness. Out of this sharing will come a new approach to chronic illness.

That approach must be based upon two principles: (1) prevention of chronic illness and its disastrous effects upon individual, family, and community life; and (2) effective organization of services so that each community can give the best modern care to all patients and potential patients.

This is a large order. Such an approach brings in every agency, every trained person who can contribute to attaining those goals. Prevention is not just a medical problem; it calls also for new concepts of social work, general and vocational education, public assistance and employment policies. Obviously, you and I cannot by ourselves construct a definitive plan for the development of new concepts and their implementation. We can do our own planning, realize where we fit in and take leadership. In the thinking and experimental work that is going on in the health field generally, and particularly in the Public Health Service, both thought and action are directed toward prevention of chronic illness and organization of community services.

Prevention is the primary need in the control of chronic illness. I realize that this may be a disturbing idea to those of you who, in your own communities, daily face a staggering responsibility for the

care of large numbers of persons already incapacitated, in varying degrees, by chronic diseases. You well know that there is a backlog of cases, men and women who have not been restored to useful life in the community because existing methods of treatment and present methods of organizing services are not adequate. You are confronted with problems of financing augmented services for the chronically ill, of adapting outmoded facilities to modern methods of treatment, of finding qualified personnel to do the job.

In the last few years most of us, both in and out of the health professions, have come a long way from earlier, limited concepts of "prevention" which were based largely on techniques employed by public health agencies in the control of infectious diseases. We have gone far beyond thinking that "prevention" deals only with the impersonalities of sanitation and quarantine, or other environmental control measures.

You have seen health departments assuming responsibility for the medical care of crippled children and of persons suffering from tuberculosis and venereal diseases; and you have seen how inextricably woven together must be diagnostic and treatment services with prevention of invalidism and disability. More recently you have seen, under the mental health program, attempts to reduce the burden of mental illness by services that are both therapeutic and preventive.

You have also seen that true preventive services require a close union between mass screening procedures and highly personalized services to individual human beings. In tuberculosis control, many of you have directly participated in integrating mass chest X-ray programs with the necessary counseling, referral, and casework services needed to help sick people get the medical care they need for a return to health.

True prevention involves prompt and early detection of chronic illness; complete diagnostic services, in which social and emotional factors are considered as well as physical aspects of the disease process; and treatment that from the outset is geared to the concept of the individual's recovery or to his functioning at the highest possible capacity. Thus, prevention is not an activity; it is not a specific technique; it is not limited to specific professional groups or

agencies. Prevention of chronic illness is rather an objective of every service involved in the attack on chronic illness. It is an intensely individual process, requiring personal services at every stage.

The concept of prevention should become, I believe, a standard by which we appraise the effectiveness of our services in both health and social welfare fields. To illustrate: if in a mass case-finding campaign we "rediscover" a high proportion of persons already under treatment, then we are not achieving our purpose of bringing under treatment cases previously undetected. We must then revise our service to reach a higher proportion of presumably healthy persons. We may also need to work toward other ways of organizing our medical services to bring care within reach of the people who need it.

Similarly, if relief or public assistance authorities deny financial assistance to the families of breadwinners who are incapacitated by chronic illness until their resources have been exhausted, we will not achieve the preventive purpose of reducing financial dependency. If relief standards are too low for grants that will assure subsistence at levels of minimum health and decency, we will ultimately pay the cost of increased illness and family breakdown. If hospitals provide social services that are inadequate in terms of quality or quantity, patients will leave the hospital against medical advice to meet family needs, and our society must pay the cost of breakdown, death, or permanent unemployability.

It follows, then, that we must organize our services to give aid when it is most effective and least costly. Like preventive medical service, preventive social services are essential if the load of chronic illness and dependency is not eventually to require an overwhelming share of our available resources.

Community organization of services, so that comprehensive care may be made available for the chronically ill, depends primarily upon an alliance of health and welfare agencies, both official and voluntary. Such an alliance is in the making. At present it is more evident in interchange of fact and opinion, in thought than in action. For the rank and file of the health and welfare professions, collaboration is, generally speaking, in the exhortatory stage. Each group is exhorting the other to pick up its share of the burden.

The time has come for action. The public pressure for solution of the problem of chronic illness has intensified year by year. It has found expression in demands for increased research on chronic diseases; for expanded public health programs in the same field; for augmented public assistance to the chronically disabled; for improved housing; and for comprehensive medical services to all groups.

As a result, the Congress has passed legislation greatly expanding the Public Health Service's programs of research and aid to the states in cancer, heart disease and related ailments, and mental health. The National Hospital Survey and Construction Program—established in the Public Health Service in 1946—has served to highlight the needs of many communities for additional facilities or more modern methods of treatment of chronic diseases. Many hospital planning groups have recognized the desirability of integrating care of the chronically ill with other diagnostic and treatment services. They have urged the establishment of psychiatric units and chronic disease or rehabilitation units in general hospitals. Federal funds for hospital construction have enabled public and private, nonprofit organizations to expand hospital facilities throughout the country, thus indirectly affecting the care of chronically ill persons.

You are aware of legislation before the eighty-first Congress that would profoundly affect care of the chronically ill. You have watched the progress of H.R. 6000 through the House and know that, if passed, it will add a fourth category to the Federal public assistance program, namely, totally and permanently disabled persons, regardless of age. It would authorize grants of Federal funds to assist public welfare agencies to furnish medical services as well as cash to needy persons; and would allow Federal aid to persons in public and private medical institutions which meet standards to be established by each state.

Implementation of these proposals of the Federal Government will require joint planning and action by the health and social service professions and by the agencies in which they function. Perhaps the first effort of national scope was the Joint Committee on Chronic Disease, created in 1947 by the American Hospital Asso-

ciation, The American Medical Association, the American Public Health Association, and the American Public Welfare Association. From the same joint sponsorship has emerged the Commission on Chronic Illness.

In 1949 the Inter-Association Committee on Health was created to provide a forum for professional discussion and understanding. The Inter-Association Committee represents the four professional organizations—hospital, medical, public health, and public welfare—which sponsored the Commission on Chronic Illness, with the addition of the American Dental Association and the American Nurses Association.

In March, 1950, the Inter-Association Committee issued a statement, approved by the parent organizations, on medical care of the needy. The statement includes the following significant expression of policy: "that any provision to finance medical care for assistance recipients should permit the administration of the medical aspects of such care by public health departments and that such arrangement should have the support of these six organizations."

In December, 1949, a Committee on Medical Care was established within the Public Health Service. Its functions are: (1) to act as a clearinghouse for information on medical service programs in the Federal Government; (2) to formulate and recommend to the Surgeon General policies for Public Health Service action in medical service programs; (3) to establish and maintain active liaison with welfare agencies, inside and outside the Federal Government, which are conducting medical service programs; (4) to develop methods for improving liaison between health and welfare agencies.

Our staff have also participated in a series of productive conferences with our colleagues in other parts of the Federal Security Agency, especially through membership on the Interagency Medical Care Committee of the Social Security Administration. The joint interest and responsibility of health and welfare agencies have also been an important subject on the agenda of recent conferences of field staff of the Public Health Service. I feel sure that the understanding flowing from these meetings at headquarters to our staffs in the Federal Security regional offices, and thence to state and local

agencies, will be an important stimulus to greater collaboration in the health and welfare fields.

It is much easier to agree on principles than to work out practical methods of collaboration. First of all, representatives of both health and welfare fields need to increase their understanding of both areas of service. They need to recognize differences in approach and goals. They need to improve the methods by which they communicate with one another.

Workers in both the health and welfare professional groups know that, in the United States, there is still a great variation in the volume, scope, and quality of services provided. Great variations exist between programs; they also exist between states, and among communities within a single state. These very differences mean that communities find it necessary to plan and organize services to meet their own needs and problems, levels of functioning, and stage of development.

But public programs for health and welfare represent only a fraction of the medical and social services available for the chronically ill. Voluntary hospitals are still carrying, as they have traditionally carried, a large burden of medical care of the chronically ill. Other private, nonprofit agencies have also made an enormous contribution to identifying problems of chronic illness and serving sick people. True collaboration of health and welfare will require creative thinking and willingness to cooperate on the part of all these groups.

It is clear that planning for care of the chronically ill requires combined skills. Of vital concern is the composition of the planning group. Regardless of the agency or civic organization initiating this important activity, the health and social service professions as well as the public must be fully represented. If health agencies have not been fully oriented in the social aspects of medicine, so likewise welfare agencies have not been fully oriented in the health aspects of social breakdown. In a recent survey of all types of cases under care in one of our larger cities, it was found that one third of the families presented problems in two or more fields simultaneously. Yet during the discussion that followed the presentation of the findings, it was apparent that the professional workers in the

several fields involved were generally unacquainted with one another.

A representative planning group will approach the problem of chronic illness broadly, whereas limited selection will result in a piecemeal plan. The problem of chronic illness cannot be solved, for example, by an agreement to clean up the city's home for the aged and chronically ill and to add two workers to its staff. Nor can we concentrate solely on increasing the number of beds in chronic disease hospitals. To do so would lose the opportunity to develop a well-balanced program of service to the chronically ill.

Such a program would include home care, improved outpatient care, rehabilitation, retraining, employment of the handicapped, and housekeeping services. Dr. Boas, I believe, is the pioneer who told us twenty years ago that our needs for adequate facilities may always exceed our abilities to achieve any standard ratio of beds to population. We must exploit more fully services that have been only partially tried, such as home care, housekeeping services, and rehabilitation. We must look also for new methods of care and to improved teamwork between the professional groups who serve the chronically ill.

Both to raise the quality of service and to make the best use of available facilities, programs combining care in general hospitals and medically supervised nursing homes are likely to be extended rapidly in many parts of the country. New York City, for example, has agreed to allocate 20 percent of the general beds in its public hospitals to restorative care of the chronically disabled.

If, together, we can agree on the health concepts of early diagnosis and comprehensive care as the guiding principles in a program for the chronically ill, case-finding will become an issue of the first importance. Public Health dragnets—in mass case-finding programs—may be expected to turn up an undetermined number of early cases. But it is in the day-to-day activities of social workers, public health nurses, and other health personnel that the vast majority of patients with inadequate care, or no care, will be encountered.

The sick people will need both health and social services. The sooner both types of service are applied simultaneously—that is,

the sooner the individual or the family is treated as a whole—the more satisfactory will be the results, not only to the patient and his family, but also to the community and the nation. Each member of the health and welfare team, then, becomes a case-finder. Their responsibilities, of course, do not stop there. They follow through, working together, to see that continuous care becomes a reality—if possible until the patient has been restored to the normal life of his age group, his family, and his community.

The problem of chronic illness is by all odds the nation's number one health problem. Progress in medical science has made its solution possible, but the means are difficult, and costly. With the aging of the population, the problem is daily increasing in volume; but if the concept of prevention is accepted and applied, integrated health and social services can attack chronic illness rationally and with increasing effectiveness.

Chronic illness is not purely a medical problem; care of the chronically ill is impossible without the combined skills and resources of the health and social service agencies. Unless the social situation is managed, health and medical services are not fully effective. Unless the medical problem is dealt with, the social services are not fully effective. As we in each of the professions come more to realize our dependence upon each other, our effectiveness will increase. We will more often win the only fully satisfying reward—that of having given the best possible service.

The Economics of Caring for People with Chronic Disease

By ELI GINZBERG

WHEN AN ECONOMIST discusses chronic disease, one might expect him to analyze the economic and social wastes that result from the fact that millions of individuals are unable, in whole or in part, to be self-supporting members of the community because of their medical disabilities. And an economist talking to social workers might be expected to stress the need for community action to reverse the unfortunate spiral of chronic disease, exhaustion of individual and familial resources, relief status, and inadequate medical care. Because these are the assumptions that one might make, I shall begin by stressing the title which I have selected for these remarks in order to emphasize that I plan to take a different tack.

I will not deal with the broad subject of the economics of chronic illness, but with the much more limited—but still sufficiently broad—subject of the economics of caring for patients with chronic diseases. What is more, my approach will not be in terms of a national or even a regional analysis, but will be delimited to the findings and conclusions emerging from the New York State Hospital Study which I had the honor to direct.

Because what I have to say is almost wholly dependent on what I learned during the New York State Hospital Study, I think that I had best begin by telling you a few salient facts about that study. In our final report the following statement is found:

Columbia University contracted [with the State of New York] to execute a comprehensive study of the broad aspects of hospital care, with emphasis on hospital finances. . . . The study will concentrate on four major areas: the financial structure supporting the voluntary hospital system; the State hospital system, with particular reference to trends in the demand for additional facilities for neuropsychiatric and chronic patients; the changing role of the hospital, particularly in relation to

medical practice; and the administrative and financial interrelations between voluntary groups and government in the provision of hospital service.¹

Since there are twenty-eight pages of recommendations and findings at the beginning of the report, I am in no position to summarize the study here. You may be interested to know, however, that approximately one third of the book deals with chronic illness: in addition to a chapter on long-term illness, there are three chapters on tuberculosis and mental diseases. My remarks here will deal with chronic illness exclusive of the problems encountered in caring for patients with tuberculosis or mental disease. In self-protection it is probably desirable for me to emphasize one further fact about the scope of the study. It was clearly understood, in fact it was made explicit in the contract, that our study would concentrate on hospitalization and would not encompass all aspects of medical care. We did, however, take a broad view of the term "hospital" and included within our purview consideration of outpatient departments, diagnostic facilities, and home-care programs.

So much by way of background. I would now like to review very rapidly six phases of the problem of chronic disease by pointing out the prevailing assumptions which I encountered when I sought to inform myself about the subject; the extent to which my findings support or contradict these prevailing assumptions; and the specific recommendations which I was willing to make on the basis of our analysis and evaluation. These are the six phases: (1) the nature and size of the chronic disease problem; (2) the need for additional hospital facilities; (3) the need for custodial facilities; (4) the home care program; (5) rehabilitation; (6) prevention.

1. *The nature and size of the problem.*—The literature, and the experts, stressed the overwhelming size of the problem. Moreover, the predominant opinion conceived of chronic disease as almost exclusively a medical problem and looked to the medical profession for the answers. Particular emphasis was laid on the fact that chronic illness was not primarily a condition associated with age. And almost everyone was agreed that public neglect and niggardliness

¹ Eli Ginzberg, *A Pattern for Hospital Care* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949), p. 36.

were responsible for the very slight progress that had been made in controlling, if not eliminating, chronic diseases.

It is clearly impossible for me to present the evidence which led to our findings, but I can at least place these findings before you. I was impressed with the limitations of the National Health Survey of 1935-36 as a foundation for current policy formulations. The criteria that it employed lacked sharpness. Although it was clear that the young and the middle-aged were frequently afflicted with chronic illnesses (other than tuberculosis and mental disease), it nonetheless seemed specious to me to read repeatedly that most disabilities of people in advanced years come from disease and not from aging. To a layman, like myself, the impact of disease has a noticeably different quality when it is associated with age. I would like to quote from my final report:

The fact that persons who are invalidated are so frequently in the upper age brackets is very important in the planning and execution of any program for their welfare. In old age the body suffers the effects of diseases acquired at earlier ages and of the wear and tear of the struggle for existence and, in many instances, more or less serious mental changes take place which require medical care, frequently in institutions. Furthermore, it is very difficult for the aged to remain in employment. Loss of work not only has a serious impact on the routine of a man's life but, in most instances, it presages a major decline in his income, if not its complete disappearance. In addition, old age may bring with it the disruption of the normal family structure through the death or serious illness of one's spouse. Long-term illness, then, is likely to be only one of the major disabilities that confront the older person: he is frequently in need of not only medical but economic, social, and recreational support. Perhaps we could say that the illness befalling the vast majority of people who live into their seventies and eighties is old age itself, which brings more or less specific concomitants of a physical, emotional, and social nature.²

2. *The need for additional hospital facilities.*—We encountered the claim repeatedly that the country had only one of every ten beds which it required for the care of chronic patients. New York State was supposedly better off, the ratio being one available to four required. The master plan for New York State looked forward to the construction of 24,000 additional beds for the care of chronic pa-

² *Ibid.*, pp. 179-80.

tients, a long-range building program which at present costs would amount to approximately \$325,000,000. Implicit in this emphasis on expanding general hospitals was the belief that patients with chronic disease should be cared for primarily in a special wing of a general hospital. These substantial requirements were based on the data uncovered by the National Health Service which I previously indicated had serious shortcomings. The formula of the expansionists was two beds for chronic care per 1,000 population. We were unable in New York State to see the relevance of a formula which pointed in the direction of constructing more than 20,000 additional general hospital beds. There was evidence to suggest that patients with chronic disease who might have profited from a longer or shorter stay in a general hospital were not being admitted because they were unable to pay their way, and the welfare commissioners on occasion failed to recommend their admission as public charges. Moreover, we found that general hospitals were disinclined to admit chronic patients for fear that they could not be transferred to their own homes or to a custodial institution when the period of their treatment was completed. But most important, we concluded that there was little point in increasing the number of chronic patients admitted to general hospitals until the doctors and the other members of the medical team had developed effective programs for treating them. With noticeably few exceptions such programs were not in existence.

3. *The need for custodial facilities.*—What about custodial institutions? The reformers argued that either they should be eliminated—and plans made to treat all chronic patients in general hospitals—or else these institutions should be placed under medical supervision. Admittedly, many individuals in custodial institutions were being medically neglected. They were being given room and board, but not medical care. Many were in urgent need of hospitalization. Almost without exception, the critics took the point of view that county homes were bad and nursing homes not much better.

From the evidence that we were able to review, we too were forced to conclude that custodial institutions as currently operated left much to be desired. However, our conclusions differed from those outlined above. We thought of the custodial institution as a

substitute for the home, not for the hospital. Hence we believed that primary responsibility for supervision should remain with the welfare department. There was an obvious need for governmental inspection and for the establishment of minimum standards, including medical standards. If a proper inspectorial system could be put in effect, the maldistribution of patients between hospitals and custodial institutions could be alleviated. There was nothing in our study which led us to conclude that county homes were *ipso facto* bad; nor could we conceive how the problem of caring for older people with the least disturbance in their normal environment could be satisfactorily met without reliance on nursing homes. We agreed that there was much that was unsatisfactory in the present situation but we did not believe that it was either practical or desirable to seek a solution for the problem by defining all persons with a chronic illness as a continuing responsibility of the medical authorities.

Our attention was forcibly directed during the course of our study to the potentialities inherent in developing effective home care programs. We were told that large numbers of patients could be cared for at three dollars a day at home instead of thirteen dollars a day in a general hospital. The claim was made that the success of such a program depended on hospital leadership.

4. *The home care program.*—We were impressed with the contribution that home care programs could make in caring for patients with chronic illness. Nor was our enthusiasm greatly diminished by finding that a realistic estimate of savings was more in the order of three to four dollars than ten dollars a day—since the true cost of caring for a chronic patient in a general hospital is nearer seven than thirteen dollars per day. Nor were we willing to accept the doctrinaire position that home care programs could be developed only under hospital leadership. We did not see why health and welfare departments conjointly could not work out an effective home care program.

5. *Rehabilitation.*—Another aspect of the chronic problem in the foreground of our study was the potentialities of an effective rehabilitation program. We were told that the savings from such a program could be so large that they would cover the expenses

many times over. The protagonists covered a wide gamut from complete occupational rehabilitation to self-care. Their motto was to have everyone live and work to the utmost of his capacity.

We concluded that it was definitely desirable for the community to become more aware of the potentialities of rehabilitation, both from an individual and a social viewpoint. We questioned the more extreme claims, particularly those expressed in monetary terms, because we felt that the patients who were presented as evidence of the success of rehabilitation were a selected group, and that a continuing program would show less startling results. Moreover, we questioned whether the elaborate plans that thought in terms of rehabilitative units in every community hospital had much reality, considering the acute shortages of skilled personnel and the extremely limited training facilities that are available.

The contention that much could be done to prevent chronic illness was particularly intriguing to us since we knew that effective prevention was the most efficient and economical way of coping with disease. Those who stressed the preventive approach seemed to rely to a very considerable degree on the importance of periodic medical examinations which would provide the medium for early recognition and treatment.

Although we were strongly in favor of the expansion and improvement of diagnostic and treatment facilities for ambulatory patients, we were unable to find much support among our medical advisers for annual medical examinations. Nor were we able to discover how the available or prospective medical resources, even of a rich state such as New York, could support this approach. It was our belief that progress lay in a different direction: in insuring that every family had a doctor; and that every doctor had the support of a strong diagnostic unit. Moreover, we were impressed by the important role that health education had to play in effective prevention; and the importance of general living standards on health—particularly housing, diet, and work. All these factors seemed to make effective prevention a much more complicated undertaking than the instituting of an annual medical examination.

I have covered, very briefly, the six aspects of the problem of chronic disease which I outlined at the beginning. I now call your

attention specifically to the recommendations that we made to the state of New York based primarily on the analysis which we have just reviewed:

1. The utmost caution ought to be exercised in expanding general hospital capacity to care for chronic patients. An essential preliminary step would be the development of effective programs to care for these patients in general hospitals.
2. Custodial institutions, particularly nursing homes and, in larger communities, county homes, have an important part to play in a total program. However, it is essential for government to assume more responsibility for establishing and enforcing minimum standards of service provided by these institutions.
3. Every effort should be made to develop and expand effective home care programs because of the economic and social advantages of treating the maximum number of patients outside hospitals.
4. The rehabilitative aspects of medicine should be stressed at every stage so as to bring the maximum number of the chronically ill and injured back to a higher level of performance. However, if occupational retraining is to be effective, in an economy that operates frequently below full employment, the handicapped must be aided in their search for jobs.
5. Effective prevention hinges to a large extent on the general advance of medicine and on effective adaptations of such advances; and therefore research should be furthered.

This was the general framework within which we formulated our specific recommendations to the Governor and legislature of the State of New York. Now in conclusion I would like to discuss how I see the problem now, about six months after the completion of the New York State Hospital Study. Dr. Scheele recently stressed the fact that it was the complexity rather than the volume of chronic illness that was the crucial challenge. I feel sure that Dr. Scheele is right. A preoccupation with the magnitude of the problem can lead only to confusion, if not to despair. If one focuses on the complexity—as I think one should—then two conclusions follow. It is important to search for priorities; for complex problems have multiple facets, and effective action requires skillful analysis and thoughtful evaluation. As one looks ahead, there is a reason-

able prospect that additional voluntary and governmental funds will be available for the care of patients with chronic disease. But if these funds are to be used effectively, there is the utmost need to establish intelligent priorities. Finally, I do not think it can be stressed too often that chronic illness is almost as much a social as it is a medical problem. Social workers are fully aware of the great diversity in our social and medical resources, not only between one region and another, and between one state and another, but even between one county and another in the same state. If one is concerned with the development and implementation of a realistic program rather than of a comprehensive plan, one must proceed in full recognition of these significant differences. And to the extent that one does, progress should be that much faster.

Cooperative Planning for Social Welfare

I. BY VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS

By FRANK L. WEIL

WHY IS IT NECESSARY to discuss such a subject as "Cooperative Planning for Social Welfare"? I would have assumed that such planning is by now taken for granted. The need for it appears to be elementary. It has, in fact, been going on for very many years. Yet I must assume that the last word about it has not been said, nor is it likely to be said for some time. Careful examination into the subject has brought me to the conclusion that there are a number of valid reasons why it should be discussed.

There is considerable misunderstanding and even fear of planning. There is a lack of understanding of how desperately it is needed in these times. There is confusion as to what are the proper areas in which planning should take place. There is doubt as to who or what should participate in it. There is a lack of clear perception of the ultimate objectives served by planning and upon whose shoulders rests the responsibility. And finally, there is always the question of "how."

In any time of emotional stress—and the years following a great war are always heavily laden with emotional conflict—there is a tendency to apply labels and to develop strong antagonisms. In such times, logophobia, or fear of being labeled, develops to an inordinate degree. There is a fear in these days in some quarters of anything having to do with planning. There are fears of a planned society or a planned economy, and the very word "planning" itself tends to take on an invidious meaning. Only last year,

one great national organization was criticized for doing too much planning, by a distinguished businessman who undoubtedly has made a great success in his own business because of the effective plans he has developed for it.

A few years ago there was so much confusion in the grading and assorting of olives that the olive packers and the grocers got together to agree on standard classifications. They agreed upon nine grades and labeled them respectively "small," "medium," "large," "extra-large," "mammoth," "giant," "jumbo," "colossal," and "super-colossal." "Mammoth," according to the dictionary, is supposed to mean "huge" or "gigantic," and it is also the description of a prehistoric animal of enormous size, but today it has come to be known as the descriptive word of only a moderate-sized olive.

When I go to a grocery store to buy olives, I no longer look at the label but rather at the olives themselves. What is needed these days is to look at substance and not be deterred by labels. Planning is still necessary, even if some people have come to be afraid of the word. If there are people who fear a planned society, they nevertheless need not fear "planning." We would never learn from the past if we did not study history and plan. The alternative to planning is fragmentation, separatism, going it alone, and, if carried far enough, anarchy. Planning is an essential part of the democratic process and involves the interrelation and the interdependence of a free people, and when resorted to properly it is a source of wisdom and of strength.

Some social welfare organizations, at times, fear planning. They fear loss of freedom, yet find planning so logical that they cannot ignore it. They have an unfounded fear that because planning is logical they must plan even if it means a major loss of freedom. They fear the effect of planning on individualism. They fear losing their place in the sun, their autonomy, or their freedom of initiative.

There would be less fear and more understanding of planning were it understood that planning means exploring and studying together cooperatively; that it should not involve imposing decisions by some external authority; that it involves no more loss of freedom than comes from customary group restraints as contrasted with the supposed unrestrained freedom of the individual.

There is one national community, and it is indivisible. It is indivisible in the sense that it is interdependent and interrelated. No single local community is self-sufficient. No single individual is self-sufficient. The community, as we knew it even a generation ago, has changed. Federal social security legislation affects each local person. A drought in Burma or in the Argentine affects the food supply of Europe. Labor-management failures to maintain steady employment bring strikes, needy families, drains upon public welfare departments and voluntary agencies, and therefore upon the citizen's pocketbook.

Coming together to plan is part of the American pattern. Conscious planning for human well-being is today's requisite. It is an American habit started long ago, a habit of working together, talking together, planning together in the common interest, for the general welfare. We planned our independence as a nation. We created the Bill of Rights and the Federal Government with checks and balances. Our planning evolved into 90,000,000 tons of steel and 100,000 planes a year in wartime, a Tennessee Valley Authority, communicable disease control, and building regulations. And we used a variety of organizations, public and private, to carry through this planning.

Our population has grown greatly. The 1950 census will show that we exceed 151,000,000, as against 132,000,000 in the 1940 census. This is a growth substantially in excess of what was anticipated. In addition, due to advances in medical science, there are more young people and more old people, and as a result of economic developments, there is more leisure time for all.

As against this growth, there have been ever greater demands on the funds available to serve social welfare. The proportion of funds spent by government to the total spent has increased. The responsibility carried by voluntary organizations is greater and not less, but the wherewithal with which to carry on is, in the over-all picture, less proportionately than it has been, and substantially less than it needs to be.

The very fact that more funds are needed, that costs are going up, emphasizes the necessity of cooperative social welfare planning to get at the cause of our ills, to find the appropriate place for

government, and to learn better how to obtain public understanding of the need for support of voluntary causes. Planning is desperately needed because life has become so complex. There are many more cogs in the machine, and life is so interrelated that when one cog gets out of mesh, the machine breaks down.

Planning is desperately needed when one contemplates what would happen without it. Divisive forces are abroad in the land. Those divisive forces affect our social welfare interests. Some of them are ideological—national against local; individualism against cooperation; public against private; lay against professional; special interests against the well-being of people; planning against financing.

One highly controversial matter today is the question of relationship between fund-raising and distributing and planning. Should the functions of studying needs, deciding on how to meet them and financing them, be delegated to one body; that is, shall a local community chest have full authority and control over community planning to meet welfare needs, as well as control over implementation of plans through its power to raise and distribute funds? Sometimes that power is not overtly exercised, but it is there just the same. Should the council of social agencies—the planning arm of the chest—be an instrument of the chest, or be an independent body created by the agencies and public-spirited, impartial citizens? Obviously, the knowledge of fund-raising only is insufficient to plan and determine policies of function. By the same token, familiarity with function is insufficient to give a grasp and comprehension of the problems of fund-raising. That coordination is required is obvious, but the question is whether it can best be achieved by autonomous, cooperative bodies involving all interests, in the planning and fact-finding function, rather than a monolithic system where study, planning, and financing are united under one control.

Some of the divisive forces we face relate to sovereignty: "This is my community; approach it with caution"; "This is my program." There is fear of joining in the common effort because of a fear of loss of sovereignty. Some social welfare organizations, and some of them are big, insist upon the preservation of the veto. Some of the

divisive forces are economic pressures, special interests, the control over money, budgets. Some of the divisive forces are in a lack of understanding that national organizations are different; that communities are different; that motives are similar. Then there is fear of division itself. Doing nothing may not disturb unity; attempting to plan may divide, and a situation of suspense without progress results. But we cannot stand still. Increased expenses, the possibility of diminishing income, misunderstanding, cannot and must not stop the progress of social welfare.

When business and industry are confronted with diminishing income, they plan down to the utmost detail how they can cut out every unnecessary expense; how they can make every dollar do the work of two; how they can more effectively deliver the same service with less cost. This applies with equal force to voluntary social welfare agencies when they are faced with the same conditions.

One of the greatest problems that confronts us is how we can marshal the forces in the nation, government and private, lay and professional, to make provision for meeting our expanding social welfare needs. Most significant in this picture is the contribution of the voluntary organizations, and only by education in recognition of civic and communal responsibility can we hope to carry on.

Probably the best definition of planning is that given by Lincoln: "If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it."

Confusion exists regarding planning at times because of the limited concept of welfare which holds that planning relates only or primarily to the programs of established agencies, the elimination of duplication in those programs, and the development of effective service. All these things are important and essential to good planning, but they are only the beginning. They are the aspects of planning that community welfare councils have worked at in the past three decades. The broad concept of the scope of planning is that it deals with the whole of life and should be limited only by human need itself. On that basis, planning agencies are concerned with employment, income, the responsibility of the individual and of industry as well as of government and voluntary effort, and also,

with economic forces, international affairs, social factors. If we are to do more than continually patch together the broken pieces, we must construct a vessel that will not be broken.

There is confusion because too much planning is for the near future and not enough is long-range. This is true from the point of view of individual agencies, and also from the point of view of cooperative planning among agencies. Individual agencies have their own planning to do. Cooperative planning results when agencies and other forces join together. In either situation, planning must reach out to the horizons.

Confusion exists because people forget that planning is never final. Planning must be dynamic because each organization and the environment in which we live are dynamic. Each organization interacts with its environment, but, more important, the environment itself is dynamic and ever changing. The problem of the individual organization in relating itself to its changing environment becomes more complex as many agencies, each dynamic, come together for cooperative planning in an ever changing situation. As numbers multiply, jealousies of necessity appear, and the fear of loss of identity or autonomy becomes an item to be reckoned with.

Finally, there is confusion between the types of planning. Some favor the blueprint type of planning; others the developmental or evolutionary planning. The blueprint type was popular in the days of technocracy when the idea was to ascertain the facts and work out a 100 percent blueprint for solving the whole problem. City planning is sometimes in this category. It seems to have merit when one is dealing with static or physical things. The United Services Organization established an exact formula, such as "five clubs for five agencies" at each large camp, or "one club for every 5,000 men."

The developmental or evolutionary type of planning is more suited, in the opinion of many, to social work planning. It starts out with goals to meet present and future needs, but offers no precise blueprint, realizing that communities and agencies have to be educated through progressive steps to realize goals and be willing to support them financially as well as because conditions change and flexibility in detailed planning is needed. Thus, instead of offering

formulas—so many hospital beds per 1,000 population; so many acres of play and park space per unit of population—developmental planning would point up the broad medical and recreational needs and indicate what agencies, private and municipal and state, should undertake to meet them.

Planning must be kept flexible, and the developmental or evolutionary type of planning appears to offer the best solution for our present problems and needs.

Historically, social welfare started with the voluntary agencies. As it expanded, government has assumed a share of the responsibility. It has assumed that share as its role has become understood and accepted by the people and as there was general acceptance that it could carry a particular responsibility better than voluntary effort. For example, in unemployment relief, when the volume became too great for voluntary effort, or in social security, when the people determined that their government, with its authority, should act for them, government assumed the responsibility.

It is today generally recognized that government properly takes over standardized and large-volume operations and, in some areas, carries on distinguished programs of research and experimentation. The voluntary social agencies, free from political control and accountability, have unique opportunities to carry on demonstrations and are more free to become great pilot plants for developing new methods, new techniques, and new fields of service. A great partnership of cooperation between government and the voluntary social welfare agencies of the country has developed in which each is a strong and willing partner looking to the other to carry on a full share of well-understood responsibility. Planning will aid in defining the principles and specific functions of the responsibilities of each. Both are required in social welfare and in planning.

In these days of indivisibility of interest, problems affecting social welfare, in which planning must be undertaken, are the responsibilities of the entire nation, as well as of the states and the local communities. Provisions to meet the needs posed by these problems should be made nationally, locally, and state-wide, both by governmental and by voluntary agencies, involving lay and professional participation.

A characteristic of planning is that there must be inclusive participation. This means not only all the social welfare forces involved, but the relating, as well, of political and economic forces. Planning is a harmonizing of forces—social, economic and political—for human well-being. It is a counterattack against the forces that divide, that debilitate, that shrivel, that kill, human personality—the most precious of all commodities. Shall human personality be enhanced, or shall debility and selfishness win? That is the stake in planning for human welfare.

The underlying facts to be sought in order to plan must be found primarily on the local level where the need exists. To determine the program, wisdom must be sought from all levels, local, state, and national. No one level is all-wise. Each needs the other. No one can seek to impose its wisdom or its authority upon the other. All must work together toward the common goal.

Action depends upon the nature of the program. If it is legislative, it is aimed at the halls of the law-making body, supported by ammunition from all levels. If it is to deal directly with those the program seeks to serve, its impact is local, but its force again comes most effectively from all levels. The impact and influence of the national organizations on local communities can be good or bad, and they affect the local processes of cooperation.

The auspices are very important. They must be voluntary. The planning we are talking about is cooperative. It carries no mandate. It has no authority except that given it by consent. Government compulsion for planning in social welfare would deny all this. It would arouse fears that could not be allayed. It would estop co-operation. Government, under its own auspices, must plan within itself for the proper discharge of its own responsibilities, but in a democracy it becomes impossible for it to take the authoritarian position of forcing compliance. The auspices for social welfare planning, although in some instances stimulated by government, must be voluntary. Consequently, the phases of planning must at all times take into consideration all agencies which the program may affect, and all who may participate in or contribute to it.

The ultimate objective is the advancement of human well-being by working together. Our free associative instinct has been our most

distinctive American characteristic. It is our strongest urge toward cooperative planning. It makes planning inevitable. Our voluntary free associations of all kinds and conditions, but particularly our social welfare agencies, are an inseparable characteristic of the democratic process. If there were no social welfare services, there would be no democracy, for they are one of the great attributes of democracy. If voluntary social welfare does not plan, it will be inefficient and disappear. Planning must not be taken for granted, but must have constant charm of freshness, of novelty, and of discovery.

Emergencies accelerate change. We are in an emergency today. The grave problem that confronts us is: can our way of life survive? Raymond Fosdick has stated: "With the power at our command so easily capable of destroying everything we have inherited, in the future we shall have to provide social arrangements through conscious planning and mutual agreement."

If we believe in our way of life, we must constantly fact-find, determine programs, and act. The need for more extensive and better coordinated services makes cooperative planning imperative. That does not mean that we shall indulge ourselves in an orgy of planning. Fact-finding must be undertaken to ascertain the needs, and programs should be developed within such needs.

As part of the democratic process, it is important to recognize that our strength comes from diversity, not from uniformity. We must not be discouraged by differing points of view or by differing proposals for action. Planning will determine, in any given situation, how far we can go together, and will determine which is the part of the voluntary organizations; which is the part of government; which is the responsibility of national, of state, and of local. Effective cooperative planning by voluntary organizations can develop how much we have in common and in how much we differ. The voluntary organizations can never rest upon the past. Their strength and their vitality are a measure of our way of life, and there must be constant striving for better programs and better action.

In a democracy, it is the people who are the masters. It is the people who will determine their own fate. Abraham Lincoln said:

At what point, then is the approach of danger to be expected? I answer, if it ever reach us, it must spring up amongst us; it cannot come from abroad. If destruction be our lot, we must ourselves be its author and finisher. As a nation of free men, we must live through all time or die by suicide.

The responsibility lies on everyone's shoulders, but one of the greatest single assets of the voluntary organization is the social worker. Social work can succeed only through an effective working partnership of volunteer and professional, but the role of the social worker in building the strength of the voluntary organization is unique.

The social worker is in a unique position because his daily job is to know what the needs of people are and where the machine breaks down. Furthermore, he has outstanding professional skills that qualify him for a particular type of leadership. But the layman also has skills and attributes that qualify him for a type of leadership. Such understanding as I may have of social welfare over an experience of almost forty years is testimony to how large a part the professional social worker has played in my experience. Success is only achievable through a working partnership between layman and social worker. Neither is able, as effectively, to go it alone. Each has a significant contribution to make, and without the other, the result can only be partially achieved. Each leans on the other.

Let me pay a layman's tribute to the contribution of incalculable value of the social worker. In cooperative planning, it is he who does the largest part of the task in finding the facts. In devising the program, it is he whose experience and fertile imagination suggest various approaches from which, by cooperative activity, volunteer and professional will agree upon the basic program. It is the social worker who, through his continuity of devoted service, undertakes the action which is the measure of success of the program that has been devised.

Planning is not just a matter of cooperation or reconciling divergent points of view but rather of relating all the parts of a problem to a single whole. Mary Parker Follett illustrated this when she said: "We can never reconcile planning and individualism until we

understand individualism not as an apartness from the whole but as a contribution to the whole."

Let us never allow ourselves to be buried by an either-or position. There is often the possibility of something being better than the two apparent alternatives. The world is not all black or all white.

We learn how, not by concentrating or theorizing, but by finding ways of working together by actually working together on specific projects. Failure in one effort at cooperative planning should not deter us from entering eagerly upon the next effort. Our differences must be brought into the open; they cannot be integrated unless we know what they are. The channels of communication must be kept open. People must come together and think and talk together. Only in that way can progress be made.

All points of view must be represented and at an early stage of planning. Once people begin to crystallize their thoughts and take positions, it is difficult to move them. It is better to know all forces and all divergent views before seeking to arrive at solutions.

As a people, we have done very well throughout our history, and we have done well because at every stage of difficulty, at every stage of growth, we came together and we planned cooperatively and open-mindedly. We stand today upon a firm foundation of history. We face the future with confidence and we must continue to plan cooperatively in all the realms of social welfare.

II. BY GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS

By CHESTER BOWLES

WE OFTEN TAKE FOR GRANTED one of the most important characteristics of our American democracy—our deep persistent and growing concern for the welfare and dignity of the individual. The development of this concept has been a remarkable achievement.

Most thoughtful people in the first part of the last century were deeply concerned over the brutality and indifference to the welfare and rights of human beings which accompanied the early development of the machine age here in America. Those who most clearly foresaw the great industrial expansion of the last century and a half predicted that awful degradation of the great mass of men and women must of necessity accompany this development.

Indeed, it was this possibility that made a man like Jefferson deplore the growth of industrialism here in America and maintain that the only way to preserve our democracy was to build an economy of small farmers. Jefferson's agrarian economy did not develop. But neither did the dehumanization which he feared would be the result of industrial civilization. Instead, our beliefs in the worth of the individual and his right to meaningful freedom, in the economic as well as the political sense, have continued to grow as our economy has grown. And we have followed up those beliefs with action to make them, at least in part, realities. It seems to me that this really remarkable achievement throughout our history is due in very large part to people who think and work and feel as social workers do.

You have never let yourselves be diverted from the welter of human problems that arose as our economy built the muscle that has given us the greatest capacity to produce in world history. For a long time, of course, your work was done primarily through voluntary agencies. Let me say, parenthetically, that I am glad that the National Conference of Social Work has chosen that term rather than

the old-fashioned one "private agencies." All welfare work is public, and one of your very real accomplishments over the years has been to wipe out the stigma of "private charity" that in earlier years was attached to the work of welfare agencies.

Working for these voluntary agencies, social workers were on the expanding frontier of public concern and public understanding of the important difficulties and problems of individuals in our expanding industrial economy. You saw at first hand the abuses that went hand in hand with that expansion and the havoc that it created in the lives of individual men and women and their families.

Yours was the job of identifying the problem, of getting the facts about it, of developing techniques and methods for dealing with it, and of educating people to its significance and importance. This happened dramatically in the direct relief field, which was handled by voluntary agencies until, during the depression, need became so overpowering that government was finally forced to accept the responsibility. By that time agencies had developed a philosophy of the right of each individual to be helped on an individualized basis; adequate standards of assistance; and the confidential nature of the help offered.

When government accepted responsibility for seeing to it that help was available for those who need it, assistance became a matter of right instead of charity. The methods of administering these programs was borrowed from the demonstration which voluntary agencies had made over the years. This demonstration gradually had come to rule out the poorhouse and the "handout" approach as important techniques. It had accepted the principle that the democratic way of life emphasized the dignity of the individual. It had refused to permit human degradation by treating those who needed help as inferiors.

The demonstration is not yet ended. Voluntary agencies through their policy-making citizen boards must continue to recognize and push ahead for new methods, new techniques, and the extension of welfare programs as new and tested knowledge points the way to improved human relations.

In Connecticut we have many outstanding examples of this process. The Connecticut Commission on Alcoholism is a direct

outgrowth of the work of a voluntary agency—Yale University. Under Dr. Howard Haggard, Yale in 1930 established its Laboratory of Applied Physiology to undertake research in this field. By 1940 the university decided that research into the physiological side had reached the point where the social aspects of alcoholism required investigation, and opened clinics in Hartford and New Haven. The work of these attracted such favorable attention by demonstrating the value of the scientific approach to treatment that a citizens' group made a detailed survey of our courts, jails, in fact, all public institutions, to study the incidence of alcoholism and the extent of the problem.

The research at Yale, the demonstration of the value of clinics, and the report of the Citizens' Committee convinced our legislature that the problem was a serious one, too big for any voluntary agency, even one as large as Yale, to grapple with. Alcoholism not only affected the individual and his family, it affected production in industry and every phase of life. It respected no group—the underprivileged, the overprivileged, or the great mass of people.

Five years ago the Connecticut Legislature passed the law establishing our Commission on Alcoholism. It was the first law of its kind in the United States. Today the Commission operates five clinics in various parts of the state, and helps some thirteen hundred people annually. Early in 1950 the Commission opened the Blue Hills Clinic in Hartford, an inpatient facility with fifty beds. This is the country's first publicly supported hospital for the specialized study, care, and rehabilitation of the alcoholic.

Since the Connecticut Commission on Alcoholism was established, twenty-three state legislatures have acted to deal with this problem. In May of 1950 an official delegation from Ontario will study details of the Connecticut setup, that province having decided to open clinics based on the Connecticut plan.

Close cooperation exists between the Commission and Yale, to the extent of some sharing of staff at the top level. Broadly speaking, the Commission's goals are education, rehabilitation, and, in the long run, the prevention of alcoholism. In each city where there is a clinic, there is a Citizens' Advisory Committee which works closely with the Commission. The clinic is a member of the local council

of social agencies, where detailed cooperation with the private agencies is effected.

Yale continues to attack specialized problems in this field, and acts as consultant to many public agencies in all parts of the United States. Dr. Selden Bacon, of the Yale Sociology Department, is president of the State Commission on Alcoholism.

We in Connecticut have also embarked, in a modest way to be sure, on governmental programs to help emotionally disturbed children and on a plan to help children afflicted with cerebral palsy.

I think it is very important for this relationship between voluntary and governmental agencies to continue and to grow. For while government has assumed general responsibility for a number of major welfare functions, it cannot be depended upon, because of its very nature, to be the pioneering and advancing group. To take only one example of an area where today we see a real need for imaginative and experimental social work, let us look briefly at the problem of working out a fully rounded program for our older people.

Government has, of course, assumed the basic responsibility for old age assistance and old age insurance payments. To be sure, there is much to be done in the way of improving our social security laws, and we are, I think, making progress in that direction. We are in the process today of increasing insurance benefits, and soon we will be rid, I hope, of the paradoxical situation in which awards under old age assistance are almost twice as high on the average as old age insurance payments. Within the past year the Connecticut Legislature has removed the fifty-dollar ceiling on old age assistance awards and has eliminated many of the odious pauper tests.

But although we have made important gains from the point of view of meeting the financial needs of our older citizens, we have not yet done very much to help them with their social setting. Clubs have been organized in a few places, but by and large, we have not met the over-all challenge of providing them with facilities for individual and group activities. There are many facets to this situation, but I know you will agree that, with government carrying the financial responsibility, the voluntary agencies have a great

opportunity to work out methods for helping the aged with their emotional and social problems.

In this field, too, we in Connecticut are embarked upon a new experiment in cooperation between government and voluntary agencies. We have known for a long time that many of our aged need pretty regular attention. Until now, these people could go to private homes if they could afford it. Otherwise they were uncared for, or, if constant care was needed, they were frequently committed to state mental institutions. Not only was this situation bad for our old people, but it also threatened the efficiency of our state institutions, mostly our mental hospitals, which were not equipped for that kind of work, but which were forced to take it on. To meet the situation, our legislature established a Commission on the Care of the Chronically Ill, Aged, and Infirm. For some time now, this commission has been making a really imaginative and exciting study of the possibilities in the field.

We have developed a plan through which we hope to make the fullest use of the fine staffs and other facilities at some of the outstanding private hospitals in the state. Under this plan, which is just now getting under way in one city, the state will contract with a private hospital to assume the care of a certain number of these older people, and in return the state will agree to make the necessary capital investment in new buildings.

The plan of care and treatment will, of course, have to be approved by the Commission, but in practice, it is worked out in joint meetings between the Commission and the hospital staff. One of the most important factors in the whole plan is that it distinguishes among three classes of patients: first, the bedridden, who need constant care and attention; secondly, people who are being rehabilitated and who spend most of their time out of bed. For the latter, clubrooms and activities of all sorts are provided. The third group is composed of people who do not need close supervision or constant attention, but who should be near a hospital so that their needs can be regularly attended to. For these people, we are providing cottages on the hospital grounds. Here elderly couples, and single people as well, can live out their lives in dignity and security, among their friends and with the best possible care readily available.

Of course, the state will pay, under our institutional building program, for any construction that is necessary. But I am convinced that we will be able to make real economies and provide a higher standard of service by taking advantage of specialized private staffs and facilities already in existence instead of trying to duplicate them with public funds. Eventually, I believe that this plan will take care of several thousand of our older people at separate hospitals throughout the state. Several hundred of these people will come from already overcrowded mental institutions.

On April 4, 1950, the first project under this program was begun at New Britain Memorial Hospital. The first stage at New Britain calls for sixty more beds for bedridden patients, facilities for 108 rehabilitation cases, and eighty-eight family-type cottage units. The first part of the New Britain project will cost us \$3,000,000 with plans for a second \$3,000,000 expenditure as a further development as soon as the first projects are completed. Thus, on a large scale we have a state government joined in complete working partnership with a voluntary agency to solve one of our major welfare problems. If the New Britain project is as successful as I expect, I am confident that we will move ahead with similar plans in at least two other cities.

I have spent a good deal of time sketching this relationship between the voluntary groups—moving forward on the front line, scouting new problems and new methods, educating members and nonmembers and government agencies, assuming the responsibility for well-established and financially large-scale programs. I have spent this time because I believe that the relationship is an important one for us to maintain. Only in this way can we continue to be sure that government does not impose half-baked welfare programs from above.

Public discussions of government welfare programs often ignore the very important fact that almost every governmental undertaking in this field is the result of a demonstration by voluntary groups that the program is needed, and that it can operate successfully. I am convinced that this fact is one of the important reasons for the success of our government welfare programs. Only by continuing cooperation between government and voluntary groups, not only

of the kind I have discussed, but in day-to-day operations, can we keep our big government programs close to the people and continuously adapted to the needs they were designed to serve.

From some quarters we hear a great deal of heated opposition to what is described as the "welfare state." These critics look askance at the increasing efforts of our government agencies, both Federal and state, to help solve some of the pressing social needs of our people. We hear that the movement of government into the field of social welfare is going to cost us our freedoms.

The record of the past two decades belies these gloomy prophets. During that time we have made steady advances by passing social legislation that has benefited the great majority of our people. Yet have we actually lost any of our liberties as the calamity-howlers have predicted? I think not.

I believe that most thinking persons will agree that we have more freedom to live a happy and secure life than at any other period in our history. Certainly, we have given up some privileges. We do not have any longer the right to make fourteen-year-old children work in sweatshops or the right to shout "fire" in a crowded theater. But this does not represent a sacrifice of our fundamental liberties as citizens. Our basic freedoms have actually increased rather than diminished, to a great extent as a result of our tremendous advances in the field of social legislation.

Social workers are in intimate, daily touch with the difficulties of individual men and women. You work to satisfy their immediate needs for assistance, medical care, social outlets. I have discussed the importance of this work in maintaining the dignity and freedom of the individual in our society. But you and I know that these immediate needs and problems are really only symptoms, that the real roots of the problems which concern us lie elsewhere.

The dignity of the individual becomes a phrase, if we do not also concern ourselves with men's environment. It avails a man very little when he hears or reads fine words about himself as a representative of the human race if he has been forced into debt because of illness, if he and his family must live in a slum, if his children are forced to attend an antiquated and overcrowded school, or if he himself is unemployed and has used up his unem-

ployment insurance. Under such circumstances, a man is likely to forget his dignity.

Of course, this does not mean that we should not treat the symptoms. A doctor cannot ignore the slum-bred tuberculosis from which his patient is suffering, in order to go out and tear down the slum which helped create the disease. It does mean, however, that we must support with all the energy we can muster those programs which are designed to keep our people fully employed, to raise and expand our living standards, to provide decent modern homes for all, to assure a good, up-to-date education for every child, to make the great resources of modern medical science available to all.

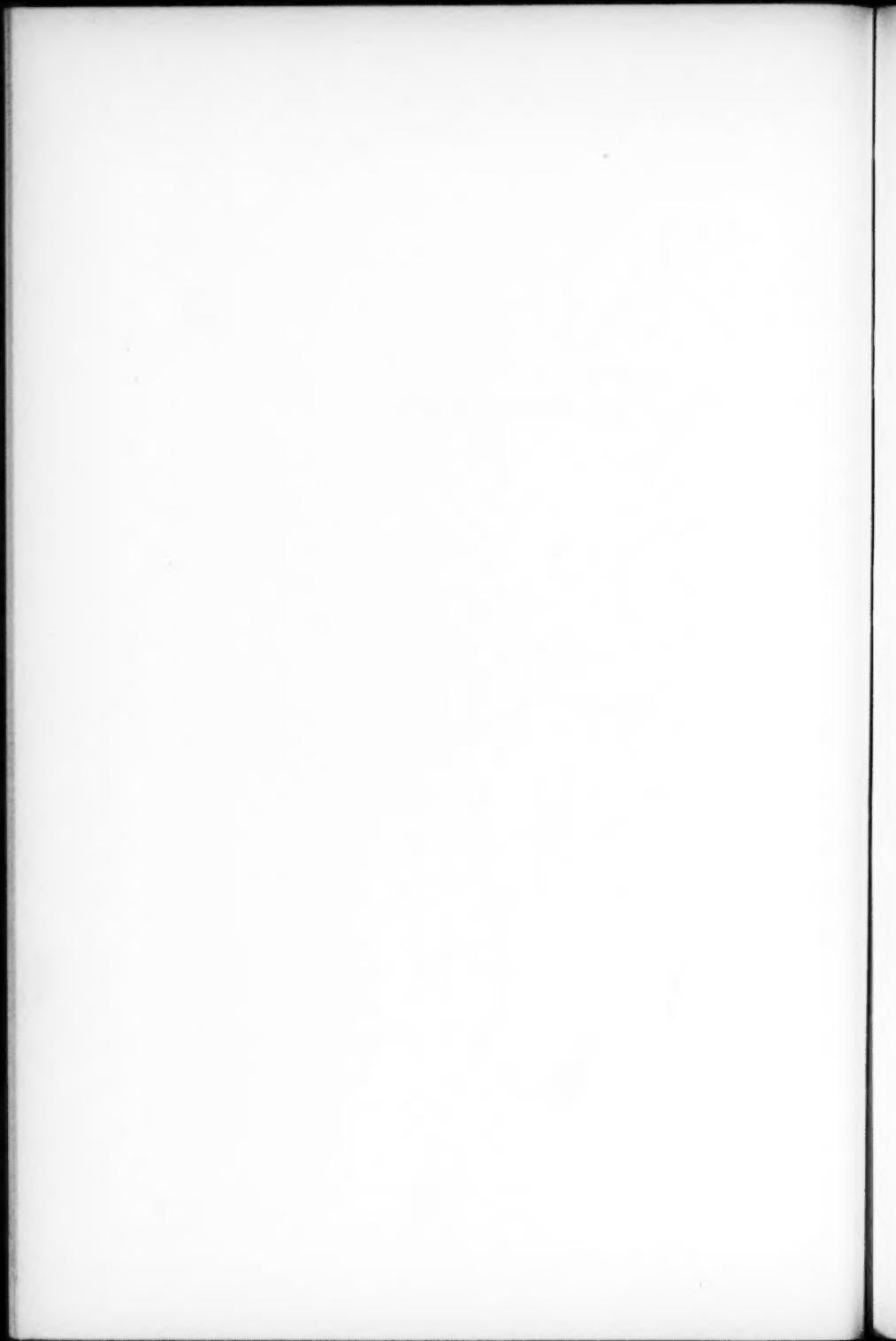
Here too I have found social workers in the front lines of the battles, bringing their facts and their intimate acquaintance with the problems of people insistently to the attention of the legislature. In this way, I can honestly say, social work is the only profession I know of that is working day and night to do itself out of a job. When we face up to the magnitude of our needs, however, it is obvious that it will be many generations before any such millennium is reached.

In less than two decades, reaction as a way of life, politically, economically, and socially, has been forced, in large part, to the defensive, with practical liberalism now carrying the ball. How long liberalism will retain the offensive, whether it can retain it long enough to reach our minimum objectives, depends on how long it will take us to learn to cooperate with each other, and to plan together. These goals require a cooperative pooling of our voluntary and governmental resources to the end that every man, woman, and child shall have an opportunity to create for himself a full life. Practicing liberals have always believed that since social problems are made by man, they can be solved by man. They know that there are no patent medicines in the quest for security.

I believe that only in a free and enterprising and expanding democracy can we plan cooperatively to achieve a life of freedom and security for all. I know that this is a conviction you share with me. I look forward to working together with you, in the future as in the past, to make this belief an ever broadening reality for all our people.



PART TWO



The Survey Award

THE BRONZE PLAQUE representing the *Survey* Award was presented to the 1950 recipient, Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the United States Children's Bureau, as part of the program at the General Session of the Conference on Monday evening, April 24.

This annual award was established by the *Survey* in 1948 as a memorial to one of its founders, the late Edward T. Devine. The stated intention is "to recognize an outstanding particular achievement in techniques or operation within the wide range of health and welfare activities, including legislation, interpretation, planning, and organization. No one is barred because of eminence, but the creative and imaginative will be the determining factor."

The presentation was made by Leonard W. Mayo, chairman of the committee which selected the winner. The other members of the committee were Mrs. Alice Arrington, Dr. Reginald M. Atwater, Ralph H. Blanchard, Louise M. Clevenger, Loula Dunn, Major Frank Evans, Frank J. Hertel, Dr. Arlien Johnson, Cheney Jones, Austin MacCormick, R. Maurice Moss, the Rev. Ralph M. Richards, Maurice Taylor, Dr. Ellen Winston, and Dr. Ernest Witte.

CITATION OF KATHARINE F. LENROOT

*By LEONARD W. MAYO, Chairman of the
Award Committee, April 24, 1950*

KATHARINE LENROOT, in behalf of the Committee appointed by the *Survey*, I am happy to present to you the Edward T. Devine Memorial Award and Plaque for 1950.

Born in Wisconsin, graduated by the Superior State Normal School and the University of Wisconsin, and recipient of the degree of Doctor of Laws from the latter institution, Deputy Industrial Commissioner of Wisconsin, Special Agent in the Children's Bureau, Assistant Director of its Social Service Division, Assistant Chief, and since 1934, Chief of the Bureau, yours has been and is "an imaginative and constructive contribution to social work."

Recipient of citations and other honors both in your own and in distant lands, all bearing testimony to your untiring devotion to the children of the world, President of the National Conference of Social Work in 1935, five times your country's delegate to the Pan American Child Welfare Congress, and presently a United States member of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, this award is made in recognition not only of your unceasing efforts to make more secure the lot of children and youth, but quite as much as a tribute to the unselfishness and the humility that have characterized your sensitive and skillful approach to the multitudinous problems that arise in administering a many-sided and complex program.

We are pleased to honor an eminent leader whose interest and concern are not limited by the bounds of the agency in which she works, but whose commitment is to all children, their families and their communities and to all agencies which serve them, both public and private; a social worker who has brought distinction to her profession at home and abroad; and a person whose regard for spiritual values in these days has been amply demonstrated not only in active membership in her own church, but in her professional and official relations in the cause of children.

ACCEPTANCE SPEECH DELIVERED BY KATHARINE F. LENROOT AT PRESENTATION OF SURVEY AWARD

I RECOGNIZE that this award is given to me not by reason of any individual contribution, but because for more than a third of a century I have been part of an organization and a movement dedicated to the advancement of human welfare through concern for, and service to, children and youth. Accordingly, I accept this very great honor, not for myself, but in behalf of my colleagues past and present in the Children's Bureau and in public and private organizations concerned with children in our own and other countries. It is a special joy to accept this award from you, Mr. Mayo, because you have been for as many years a counselor and co-worker and because of the leadership you are now giving in the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth.

As never before, at this midcentury point recognition is being given to the importance of the child. We sense that if the second half of the twentieth century is to see victory in the struggle between totalitarianism and freedom, children and young people must be aided in every possible way to develop depth of insight, strength of character, and ability to relate themselves effectively with other people. It is for this reason that there has been such widespread interest and participation in the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, and in the international sense, in the work of the United Nations and its specialized agencies in behalf of the child.

It is with very deep feeling that I associate this award with the *Survey* and with the memory of Dr. Edward T. Devine. The story of the founding of the Children's Bureau begins with a trip to Washington by Dr. Devine and Lillian D. Wald to enlist the interest of President Theodore Roosevelt in the establishment in the Federal Government of a bureau concerned with the welfare of children and child life.

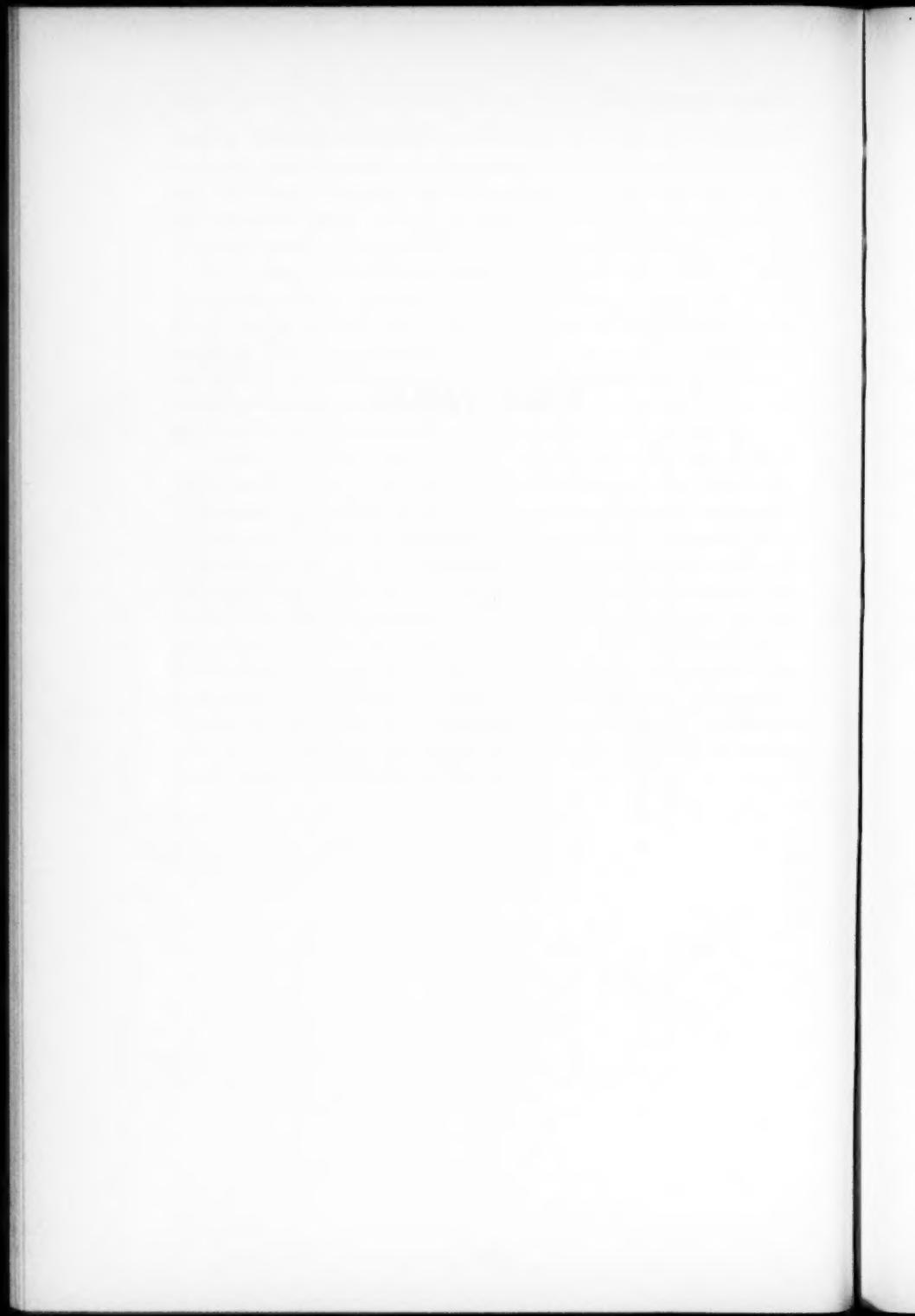
In looking back over the growth of the new profession of social work during the past fifty years, one finds Dr. Devine and the *Survey*, of which he was one of the founders, pioneering in social casework, education for social work, social research, community organization, social interpretation, and social reform. Having its

roots in the local community, social work has come to be a matter of major concern to government as well as to voluntary endeavor. It has begun to find its place in the development of national and international social policy, though its importance is only partially understood and its full contribution is yet to be realized.

The impact of social work upon people and civic affairs is both an individualizing and an integrating influence. It always views people in the light of the uniqueness of each individual and the relatedness of each to other persons. It has drawn upon the knowledge and skill of many different professions and disciplines, such as economics, sociology, law, medicine, psychiatry, and education. It has been profoundly influenced by religious concepts and motives.

Today we see that opportunity for the full development of each child's personality is not only a test of democracy, but also is the most important means we have for its preservation and further development. This can be accomplished only through a personal dedication on the part of all citizens and an outpouring of personal and material resources for advancing our understanding of and service to children, beyond anything hitherto achieved in any country. In such a mobilization there must be the fullest possible utilization of all existing resources, both public and private, far greater development than we now have of citizen responsibility and citizen participation, and cooperative planning of a high order for the extension of such services and programs as may be required to assure every child his fair chance in the world.

PART THREE



A Report of Section and Associate Group Meetings

By MARION ROBINSON

THE SPOTLIGHT of the 1950 meeting of the National Conference of Social Work came to rest on the idea that a synthesis of opportunity, security, and responsibility must be achieved in working toward a desirable level of health and welfare, not only for people of this country, but for the people of the world. As the theme developed during the six days of meetings, it was quite clear that social workers, characteristically enough, were much more concerned with the "how" of this idea than the "what." But it should be noted that these speakers and conferees were generally applying the "how" to a considerably broader area than have those of other Conferences.

International social work and social work in other countries, hitherto of fairly vague interest to American social workers, occupied a respectable amount of time on the program and won considerable enthusiasm from good-sized audiences. Speakers on the broad aspects of public affairs—world peace, economic trends in this country, implications of social insurance and public assistance, problems of minority groups—appeared on programs of the sections and the associate groups. Social action was approached matter-of-factly as a social work technique.

A highly observable trend was the breaking down of barriers between specialty practitioners and groups having special interests. More than half of the fifty-some section meetings were sponsored jointly by two or more sections, and a considerable number of the associate group programs were also jointly sponsored. A great sheaf of papers dealt with the practice of social work's techniques in settings which once would have been considered very alien indeed. The word "multidiscipline" turned up a surprising number of

times—in description of the cooperative approach of practitioners to problems which have for so long been approached in piecemeal fashion.

In fact, it now seems safe to say that the "wider horizons" which social workers have for a number of years been advised and exhorted to seek, are really beginning to appear.

International social work.—The need for understanding health and welfare service patterns in other countries as outgrowths of a particular national culture and history, which was high-lighted in the presidential address, was again emphasized in a meeting sponsored by the International Conference of Social Work Canadian and United States Committees. Walter Pettit, Consultant, Division of Labor and Social Affairs, Pan American Union, described current developments in Latin American countries against the background of three centuries of colonial rule and the subsequent high rate of turnover of political leadership. As Dr. Martha Eliot had brought out, he said that we must educate ourselves to a point of view which does not seek necessarily to project our own patterns of welfare services on peoples of other cultures. By way of illustration as to how difficult and futile this would be, he described fundamental differences between this country and Latin American countries regarding the role of the family in society, explaining that the family unit in these countries is much more cohesive and self-sufficient than in ours, and that the tie extends to include many of those whom we would consider distant relatives. Consequently, interest in group life beyond the family is slight, which means that the patterns of group life which are so familiar to us are almost unknown. The concept of community where responsibility is shared by private and public organizations does not fit into this culture either, for in these countries the state and the community are identified almost as one, and such activities as the Red Cross, tuberculosis programs, and Scouts are financed from public funds. Private welfare services, he said, are apt to be controlled by single individuals or families, are highly competitive rather than cooperative, and neither private nor public programs allow for much citizen participation. However, Mr. Pettit did not give a picture of a static situation but, on the contrary, stated that "change is coming more

rapidly in parts of Latin America than in most other parts of the world."

Speaking on the same program, Alice Brunn, Director of Public Assistance in Denmark's Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, said that the family unit in Northern European countries is strong too, but that there is general feeling that the public should share care of the old and helpless rather than leaving the burden to families. This idea, she said, is accepted by all political parties. The attitude toward old age pensions, unemployment insurance, and old age assistance is generally one of concern that no one should be in need and without adequate aid, but the amount of public contribution to social insurance is a political issue. In Sweden and Denmark, she said, the accepted principle seems to be that help must be provided to all who are in need rather than extraordinary generosity for any particular groups, and that fundamental social services must not be dependent on charity.

International trends in training schools were discussed on a program of the National Association of Training Schools by Edward Galway, Social Affairs Officer in the United Nations Secretariat. The UN has addressed itself to problems of crime and treatment of offenders, he said, in a way which "deserves to be a source of gratification" to the peoples of the member countries. A special section on social defense was created in the Department of Social Affairs to concern itself with juvenile delinquency and adult crime, consultants in these fields have been participating in the UN fellowship and consultant program, and the specialized agencies of the UN have come at the problem from the points of view of their various specialties. Mr. Galway described films, publications, studies, and special projects which had been carried out under UN auspices.

In many parts of the world, he reported, the use of hostels for older adolescent delinquents is well established. In several European countries they are used extensively to provide a transitional period from institutional life to community life. Here youths live in groups of from ten to twenty in an institutional residence under the supervision and guidance of a small staff, generally one couple, and participate fully in the occupational, educational, and social life of the community. Mr. Galway said that where hostels had

been used in conjunction with aftercare from training schools, they had been found "extremely effective." Discussing trends in training, he mentioned that there seemed to be developing a trend toward considering service in schools for delinquent youth as a professional specialty, rather than to assume, as in this country, that the same training offered other social workers is appropriate for these practitioners. Another trend, he said, lies in the fact that "as the treatment of young adults becomes increasingly socialized and nonpunitive, the line between administrative aspects, treatment approach, and personnel which divides the juvenile field from the adult, begins to vanish."

One program of the National Probation and Parole Association was devoted to probation and parole in other nations. Edmond FitzGerald, Consultant to the Ministry of Justice in Israel and Chief Probation Officer of the Kings County Court in Brooklyn, New York, told of his assistance to the Israeli Government in setting up a system in keeping with advanced developments in this country. St. Alban Kite, of the legal division, Office of Military Government for Germany (U.S.), and Assistant Director of the Division of Parole in New Jersey's State Department of Institutions and Agencies, reported that "for the first time in their history, Germans are developing a philosophy of dealing with offenders which is akin to that which prevails among nations of the West." Germans are beginning to take an interest in rehabilitating their offenders, he said, and how they succeed in this "may be indicative of how they themselves, an 'offender' nation, may emerge from their efforts at self-reformation."

In his remarks as discussant on this program, John Otto Reinemann, member of the United Nations subcommittee on probation, a group composed of United States probation administrators, said that from his experience, he believed that, regardless of the country, "human beings fail because society has failed them." Individual case situations from European and Asiatic countries, just as in the United States, reflect "emotional disturbance of an unwanted and unloved child, influence of diverse home and neighborhood conditions, attitudes of society toward the criminal, the influence of war and economic upheaval on family living, and the continuous

change in the cultural development of the country and its media of communications." Mr. Reinemann said his work on the committee had impressed him with the fact that "the United Nations is very much alive" and that its work proceeds in "an atmosphere of permanency."

At another session of the Canadian and American committees on the International Conference of Social Work, the role of social welfare in the "Point Four" program was discussed by Walter Kotschnig, Director of the Office of United Nations Economic and Social Affairs, United States Department of State. Sketching in a background of misery, hunger, and want among millions of the world's people, Mr. Kotschnig made it clear that peace could never be a reality as long as such conditions exist, and that he was convinced, as Toynbee has put it, that the program of technical assistance to underdeveloped countries constitutes our "best hope for the survival of a free society." He emphasized the fact that the focus is on developing both natural and human resources, and drove home the importance of human productivity, with its implications for health, education, housing, self-help, and cooperation, in accomplishment of the real aim of the program. As Dr. Eliot had done in her presidential address, he stressed the importance of proceeding with full understanding of local customs and traditions, adding that the mistakes will be made chiefly by those experts who do not "take account of the human element."

We are, he said, "giving most careful consideration" to what can be done through the UN and through our own government, but we are "blocked by indifference in Congress." People are apt to put too much emphasis on the bilateral program, which opens the United States to charges of "imperialism." Other countries are willing to pitch in, and more can and should be done through the UN and its specialized agencies.

"In 1950 any attack on human needs must be world-wide," said Savilla Simons, Assistant Director, Office of International Relations, Federal Security Agency, speaking on the same program. The first principle in carrying out a program of help is respect for human beings and attention to what they want and need, she said. It has been found that there is no ready-made answer to the program

needed, for much depends on local situations and indigenous leadership. She emphasized the need for leadership training, citing as an example of pioneering work the recently opened School of Social Work in New Delhi, India, sponsored by the Young Women's Christian Association of Delhi and Pakistan, where a two-year course of practical training is now being given.

The program of international exchange in social welfare was discussed by Elizabeth S. Enochs, Director, Division of International Cooperation of the United States Children's Bureau, at a session sponsored jointly by the American Association of Schools of Social Work and the National Social Welfare Assembly. The number of international visitors coming from every part of the world on scholarship, fellowship, and travel grants is increasing each year, she said, but American social workers "have been relatively slow to take advantage of opportunities to study abroad."

Describing several instances in which social workers of other countries had, after a training period in the United States, returned to do outstanding pioneer work in their own countries, she said that the numbers of these students had increased greatly, particularly since the establishment of the UN fellowship program in 1947. It is now being realized that great thought must be put on training plans for these visitors so that their experience will really assist them with the problems they will face on their return home. One student was grateful for experience here in wartime because, he said, "an emergency here is the normal situation for us." It means, she said, that many more opportunities must be found, since "the smallest social agency in the most remote community" in this country might be just the right place for a training experience. As for American social workers, they must learn to "look beyond our own frontiers," must gain knowledge of the people and problems of other countries, for this is an age of real international social work. Because "the world is knocking at our doors" seeking to learn from us, we must not allow ourselves to be lulled into "the complacent belief that we have nothing to learn."

Public affairs.—Social workers should be among the most enlightened and concerned persons committed to the prevention of war, declared Clarence E. Pickett, Honorary Secretary of the Ameri-

can Friends Service Committee, speaking at a meeting sponsored by the Joint Committee of Trade Unions in Social Work. War, he said, is an "institution of human society which in a few weeks, months, or years can play a devastating part in destroying the slow, well-organized efforts of the social worker to build a more stable and creative society." Though we may not be "able to do much about attitudes other countries maintain," we can ask ourselves these questions:

Are we, by the use of our strength, considered to be a threat to the peace of the world by the people of other countries? Are we conceited and self-assured or do we have a reasonable amount of humility? Are we able to exercise reasonable objectivity in trying to see the other country's point of view? Do we vaunt our military power and expect to prevent war by the cultivation of fear of us?

If the answer to any of these questions is "yes," this "should kindle the desire and willingness on the part of social workers to express themselves with vigor to their political leaders," said Mr. Pickett.

A quick survey of the economic and social situation within which social work operates in 1950 was made by Roy Reuther, Director of Political Action for the United Automobile Workers, C.I.O., in an address before a meeting sponsored by the Church Conference of Social Work. In his comments on the state of health of our economy, Mr. Reuther put the current unemployment figure at 4,500,000, and pointed out that while 10 percent of our families receive one third of our national income, the 10 percent at the other end of the scale receive one percent of the total United States income. The giant corporations, he declared, are making tremendous profits—as much as 34 percent after taxes. His union believes these profits should be shared more equitably with their workers. Corporations could do this and "at the same time reduce the price of their products to the consuming public," he declared. Such inequities mean "drying up of purchasing power," which leads to depression, said Mr. Reuther, who stated that "if it were not for the billions being spent on defense contracts . . . and aid under the Marshall Plan . . . the United States would certainly be in the midst of a major depression."

Urging a "bold progressive domestic and foreign policy designed

to fit the needs of the times," Mr. Reuther recommended a "broad over-all economic and political action program to bring wages, prices, and profits into balance," more long-range planning to develop our natural resources; repeal of the Taft-Hartley Act; increased social security; a national health insurance program; Federal aid to education; a comprehensive civil rights program; increased minimum wage; a "just tax law based on the ability to pay"; a middle-income housing program; an antimonopoly bill that "has teeth in it"; and extended aid to Europe, including expansion of the Point Four program.

On a program of the Joint Committee of Trade Unions in Social Work, Ewart Guinier, Secretary-Treasurer of the United Public Workers of America, put the present unemployment figure at 10,000,000, and charged that the "speed-up" has reduced employment in "rearmament shipbuilding and the steel and electrical industries." He labeled the Point Four program "nothing but twentieth-century colonialism," its real design "to find outlet for American capital."

The opening session of the public welfare section brought to the Conference a look ahead in terms of social security. Oscar C. Pogge, Director of the Social Security Administration's Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance, discussed the proposed improvements in the old age and survivors insurance program and hailed the enactment of social security legislation in time of prosperity as a "mark of increased maturity." Stressing the fact that, under a social insurance program, the worker's needs are being met on an earned basis, he said, "we have recognized almost instinctively the importance of providing security [in a way that will provide] economic incentives of distributing the goods and services of industry according to one's participation in production." Problems that remain to be solved, he said, include coverage of farm workers, the need for workers to be able to qualify for benefits within a shorter time, and the relation of social insurance benefits to private industrial pension plans.

Speaking on the same program, Arthur J. Altmeyer, Commissioner of the Social Security Administration, said that the reasons why 6,500,000 people are getting public assistance in a time of

"unprecedented prosperity" are: the increased number of aged and children; the increased cost of living; meager personal savings; and weakened family ties. How government help may counteract economic insecurity and family breakup without increasing them is a task of social engineering, he declared, pointing out that social workers are confronted by a basic problem—the necessity to help the individual and at the same time bolster his self-respect, and help restore him to self-support. People always prefer to be self-sustaining, he declared; they hate public assistance because it is a symbol of failure to meet "the challenge of our competitive and somewhat ruthless civilization." Our first line of defense remains the system of contributory social insurance, he stated, and public assistance is a second line of defense because "no insurance system can be tailored to individual family need." An adequate Federal system, he said, protects all needy persons, is concerned with helping low-income states, and helps finance consistent social services.

A plea for further development of a constructive and preventive public assistance program was entered in a group meeting of the public welfare section by Donald S. Howard, Chairman of the Department of Social Welfare at the University of California at Los Angeles. Though it is usually regarded as a palliative, said Mr. Howard, public assistance is "by its very nature both preventive and constructive, too." He felt that "social workers, generally speaking, are more eager to participate in broadly constructive services than the supporting public is willing to finance them." Like other social work, public welfare suffers from the "good Samaritan" concept, its services being thought of as aids to battered and helpless people left on the roadways; actually, the modern concept of public welfare would "emphasize the necessity for keeping robbers off the roads, and better still, the development of a kind of humane social and economic order in which, hopefully, robbery would largely disappear." Describing developments in public welfare programs of a number of cities in the country, Mr. Howard said that for a more constructive and preventive program, more "competent and highly self-disciplined professional personnel" will be needed. He also stressed the need for "extensive and rigorous research" into the cause-and-effect relationship "between deleterious social con-

ditions and the inimical results we believe to flow from them" so the public can be helped to understand the services we believe to be necessary for our "social typhoid carriers." Leadership in these fields on the part of public agencies is wholly appropriate, said Mr. Howard, for it is they who are residual legatees of social needs if they are allowed to go unmet, and who have the knowledge of the inimical results of unmet needs. Perhaps, in time, he concluded, "we can give our hand also to those broad constructive social services to which we already have given our heart."

A report on the effectiveness of Fair Employment Practices Commission laws was brought to the Conference by Harold A. Lett, Assistant Director of the Division against Discrimination of the New Jersey Department of Education. Speaking before a meeting of the section on industrial and economic problems, he said that the war and Federal FEPC plus postwar enactment of FEPC laws in four states had "helped maintain a climate of social acceptance of the principle with far-reaching effect." In FEPC states, new areas of employment have been opened in insurance companies, public utility corporations, department stores, and in such professions as teaching and nursing, and Negroes have been taken into full membership in several labor unions where membership had previously been denied them. In these four states, 2,707 complaints have been received, and of these 46 percent, which were found to involve really discriminatory acts, "were eliminated without recourse to litigation." Mr. Lett told his audience that "the virus prejudice is responsible for an epidemic that has become the most insidious threat to our national security in these days of international tension." Its control "is no longer a matter of sectional pride, comfort, or convenience, nor an issue of political expediency," and the false concepts which are involved "must be treated the same as sedition and high treason."

On the same program a paper prepared by H. L. Mitchell, President of the National Farm Labor Union, called attention to "the second largest minority in the United States"—the three to six million Spanish-speaking people in the country. His organization has become interested in Spanish-speaking farm workers who had no national movement of their own. These workers, who receive

low wages and live under slum conditions were, many of them, brought from Mexico during the wartime labor shortage. The Union has formulated a series of five proposals designed to discourage the bringing in of more labor from Mexico, and to win an eight-hour day and better other conditions for the workers.

Programs of the Indian Affairs Forum reflected a renewed effort to win freedom and equality for the American Indian. Ben Dwight, former chief of the Choctaw tribe and administrative assistant to Senator Kerr, called for the beginning of a liquidation program of the Indian Service, and told of a conference of the governors of fourteen states which was concerned with trying to work out procedures whereby Indians might assume the responsibility of citizenship. John Rainer, Secretary of the National Congress of American Indians, said that Indians had now been wards for over one hundred years, and that today many reservations are in desperate need of better educational and health facilities. He pointed out other gross inequities of treatment, such as the fact that though 75,000 Indians fought in the last war, the G.I. Bill of Rights did not allow Indians to obtain loans in order to set up their own businesses. Bob Bennett, placement officer for the Indian Service, reported that families were drifting away from the reservations—in his own tribe, 700 remain on the reservation, while 2,400 have left—but were not being properly prepared to enter life off the reservation. As a result, Indian shantytowns are growing up in towns where they have clustered. Local governments "don't like" this, but the Federal Government is not disposed to help with the proper programs on the reservation to prevent it. "We want to live in the community as any other individual—not as an Indian," said Mr. Rainer. Continuance of the reservation is not justifiable if it is only to preserve the culture, he said, for "if the culture is not self-sustaining, it will become decadent."

Unlike yesterday's immigrant to American shores, today's immigrant is often a mature person whose years of achievement are behind him, said Lillian Bye, student in the Department of Social Relations at Harvard University, addressing a meeting of the American Federation of International Institutes. Today's immigrants will contribute most forcefully to the American community because

they are "not all young, untrained enthusiasts who are going to swallow and digest with gusto the 'bigger and better' concept of life without a refinement of their own," but will take the American ideology and culture pattern, with its emphasis on individualism and "youth values" as the basis for an adjustment. These people have already made a constructive contribution to our life, she said, particularly in the field of medicine, and specifically in the areas of psychology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis. "The contribution of the immigrant reaches far in its influence," said this speaker, "and it is constructive in itself both in this psychological and sociological approach, but whether the contribution will remain constructive rests with the American community in its awareness and emphasis in its acceptance or rejection."

What efforts can social work put forth in behalf of its own convictions about these public questions and the many others which impinge upon the social work job? In a paper presented before the section on social action, Violet M. Sieder, Associate Director, Health and Welfare Planning Department, Community Chests and Councils of America, said that a review of community welfare council publications the country over shows that social action has become part of the planning job. These councils are speaking up publicly for and against bills, and supporting such measures as public appropriations, bond issues, tax levies, and others designed to improve the coverage, quantity, and quality of public service. Experience has shown that two of the deterring factors in past days in this field —fear of loss of financial support and fear of loss of tax exemption—have been found to be either baseless or less important than was thought. Councils have found that while taking action on an issue may create enemies, it almost always wins them new friends at the same time, and there is "no instance known" where a council's legislative activity has resulted in a loss of tax exemption.

Drawing on practical community experience from all parts of the country, Miss Sieder discussed techniques in handling controversial issues, in deciding who the council spokesman should be, how social action has been fitted into council organizational structure, the uses of the clearinghouse for information and the legislative or public affairs committee, and the timing for, and planning of,

legislative and social action. "The lack of political know-how is perhaps the biggest stumbling block to council activity," said Miss Sieder, "for when you are not sure how to proceed, you are naturally timid about starting anything." She also commented that social workers must not be above cultivating political leaders. "If we regard the politician not as some evil by-product of our democratic system, but rather as an essential and important cog in the legislative operation of the machinery, we will start off with several points in our favor," she said. Action is the final step in "a carefully planned chain of events which includes study, formulation of agreements, community interpretation and education," within the long-range program of organizing for the community health, welfare, and recreation, said the speaker. She suggested some principles which seem to be emerging from the community experience in this field, emphasizing the fact that social action should be undertaken only on the basis of knowledge of facts growing out of study of those problems which are the normal concern of the council. The need for more definitive study of legislative and other social action techniques on the part of councils was brought out in Miss Sieder's concluding remarks. The negative attitude on the part of some important community leaders toward health and welfare planning, which "is all mixed up with misconceptions about a 'welfare state,'" calls for a reinterpretation of the objectives and methods of work of the council and an analytical look at the legislative and social action function, she declared.

Another approach to social work's responsibility in this area came from a psychiatric social worker. Social work has a unique contribution to make if it will "begin to document the pathology in our present social organization," said Celia Deschin, Associate in Psychiatric Social Work, Long Island College of Medicine, Kings County Hospital, Brooklyn, New York, in a speech before the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers. Such documentation can be obtained through "the kind of data that will not only help to identify the most destructive aspects of a specific culture but make possible more effective psychotherapy." Psychiatrists, accustomed to private patients, "have to be helped continuously to understand the effects of prolonged and severe struggles to

meet fundamental needs" on human personality, said Miss Deschin. A socially oriented psychiatry will need the help of social workers to fill this gap in the training of psychiatrists, but this and other contributions that social work can make will be lost if it continues its "growing dependence on psychiatry and [its] independence—really ignorance—of the social work base of the profession." In dwelling on the interpersonal relationships in environment, social work has "overlooked the larger aspects and all too often [has] even abstracted interpersonal relationships from the milieu that conditioned them." Stressing "the value of documenting relationships between people and culture as well as interrelationships between people," she said that the social worker can make the important contribution of showing "how culture molds personality and how, in turn, people can change culture."

A similar plea to psychiatric social workers to stop "the drift away from our social work heritage" came from Cynthia Nathan, Chief, Social Service Section, United States Public Health Service. In discussing the psychiatric social worker as counselor in the mental health field on a program of the section on mental health, she said that therapeutic counseling is part of the social worker's job, but "not the whole job, nor necessarily the most important or valuable aspect." She called attention to the fact that, in the clinical team, the social worker's job was different in kind, not in depth; and pointed up the importance of providing information of the social situation, taking into account the needs of the family, so that, for instance, a patient is not "helped to resolve his problems at the expense of his wife's adjustment and the breakup of their home." Social workers ape the psychiatrists, she said, and in so doing, sacrifice social work values. Instead of being "halted at the emotional needs of the individual," she urged returning to an interest in environment and social needs, adding that "we place an undue premium on counseling, deriving prestige within our profession, to the lamentable exclusion of our other and broader basic responsibilities."

I. SERVICES TO INDIVIDUALS AND FAMILIES

THE NATURE of the growth process which underlies the practice of social casework was analyzed at the opening session of the casework section by Jessie Taft, Professor of Social Casework, University of Pennsylvania School of Social Work. Speaking before a capacity audience, Dr. Taft said that implicit in the belief in the possibility of either giving or taking help is the belief "in the existence of a natural impulse toward better organization of the self which, however blocked or confused, provides the basis for a new orientation to living, once a situation is encountered which can disrupt the habitual pattern and release for the formation of a new integration, the underlying growth tendencies." The possibility of providing "an artificial growth-producing situation" for the individual in need, in her opinion, she said, "is the epoch-making psychological discovery of our era, a discovery that may yet be found to be more momentous than the unlocking of the forces of the atom."

The growth process in terms of personality development is "a stormy, painful affair," declared Dr. Taft. However, "we want it more than anything else in life," for "nothing produces the depth of satisfaction that movement to a new level of integration affords." The basic need of the individual, she said, "is not more pleasure but more life," which is to say that he wishes "to make more and more of the underlying energy accessible for integration, to go with the life process instead of fighting it, and to find and use his own capacity for relationship and for creativity, however slight."

The conception of growth which underlies the practice of casework must also underlie the training for social casework, said the social work educator, for belief in the client's capacity "for growth through the helping process of casework" calls for the kind of conviction on the part of the worker "that stems from [his] own experience of growth through some form of professional help." If learning in this training situation "is to be other than an intellectual exercise," then "it will be resisted as intensely as it is sought but

will be lived through for the sake of the gain to the very self that was able to hold out against it." The resistance to help, which "seems to be based on rejection of need for the other," builds up to a crisis point, reached at different times with different individuals, depending on their own unique patterns of change. Then comes the "yielding to the need for help, an unburdening of the self in projection . . . and a taking back into the self, with new tolerance and responsibility, the parts that have been deposited upon others."

Another discussion of the fears and feelings in the training situation was brought to the casework section at a later meeting by Charlotte Towle, Professor of Social Service Administration at the University of Chicago's School of Social Service Administration. Having the emotions uppermost in the mind is important in learning, said Miss Towle, but "feelings must have a secondary place to intellect." Learning becomes traumatic, she said, "when the integrative task is greater than the integrative capacity." There is "no fixed time nor no one traumatic threshold" among trainees, but a great diversity in degree of discomfort, anxiety, and resistance; and further, "stresses will differ with the same person at different times." The educable student may undergo "considerable dependency," part of which is realistic, "based on his recognition of what he does not know," and part of which is emotional, "engendered from fear of change." Learning can proceed in spite of these stresses if the student has "foreknowledge that order will eventually come out of confusion," and is confronted with "attitudes of help without domination" which will "lessen his fear of mastery by others." More than transitory feelings "will not arise unless [the student] has deep emotional reasons for not being able to accept help." It was her opinion that "hope focused on his reality need will test his educability."

The role of the caseworker in the multidiscipline team working in the field of child development was discussed at the opening session of the section on child care in a paper prepared by Dr. Peter B. Neubauer, Joseph Steinert, and Katherine Wolf, of the Brooklyn (New York) office, Council Child Development Center, and presented by Mr. Steinert. These colleagues rejected the role of the social worker "as handmaiden to the experts," and suggested that

the appropriate role is that of "specialist for the psychosocial aspects of child development," whose place is "at the center of the team in a position to see the individual child functioning as a whole." In such a role the social worker is handicapped "by a lack of comprehensive training in the psychological and social sciences"; for although she has a synthesis of knowledge from the fields of child psychology, psychiatry, pediatrics, and social sciences, this knowledge "is sometimes fragmentary or incomplete." Thus the social worker in this situation would require training which is "grounded in social casework and augmented by selective knowledge in child development," such as knowledge concerning normal growth patterns and activity patterns at each age level. The caseworker trained in this way "should be distinguished from the caseworker who is mainly interested in social welfare considerations," as well as from "the social worker who practices as a psychotherapist," for in this situation she is really neither.

The teamwork of which the medical social worker is a part was the subject of a meeting sponsored by the American Association of Medical Social Workers. Recordings of multidiscipline conferences were presented to illustrate how the doctor, nurse, social worker, physical therapist, and others function together for the care and rehabilitation of the patient. Three recordings were used—a pediatric ward conference, a medical ward conference, and a postclinic conference in a public health setting—to show how optimal care for the patient can be jointly secured, and how each member of the team can both clarify his own responsibility and have an opportunity to see the "whole" patient. The discussant, Florence Stein, Medical Social Consultant, Division of Physically Handicapped Children, Department of Health, New York City, pointed out how each member of the team learns to use the other members for the benefit of the patient. In the team, said Miss Stein, the medical caseworker has "an objective relationship with the patient"; is skilled in interviewing; "has a sensitivity to, and an awareness of, illness," and of the meaning of the illness to the patient and his family; and has a knowledge of resources as well as of unmet needs.

The effective use of casework principles in the family agency was discussed at a meeting of the casework section by Mary E. Rall,

District Secretary, Family Service Bureau, United Charities, Chicago. Effective casework, she said, is based "upon diagnosis which takes into account the client's motive in seeking help," and must be directed toward "achievable goals." The understanding of a client's conflict and interpretation of it to the client "must incorporate the concrete life experience precipitating the client's discomfort." Assuming that an emotional problem exists without benefit of practical evidence may lead to an incorrect definition of the problem and thus to inappropriate treatment. The initial approach should be "to treat the client as normal."

Said the speaker:

An individual's needs and assets are determined by the significant life relationships which he has experienced. To understand them we must know the history of their development; but for the purpose of casework service that history alone is important which starts in the present, looking into the past only in so far as the present fails to explain the dilemma with which our client is seeking help.

The generic and specific aspects of a family casework program were discussed on a program of the Family Service Association of America by Jean Gregory, Executive Secretary, Greenwich (Connecticut) Center for Child and Family Service. The basic purpose of private casework, she said, is "to help families and individuals by a method of casework," and this remains unchanged in spite of the varying forms in which concrete and functional services have been offered. On another program sponsored by the same organization, Sonia E. Penn, Supervisor, Consultation Center, Jewish Family Service, New York City, and Martha Lou Gundelach, District Secretary, United Charities of Chicago, gave papers on techniques of treatment in the family agency of individuals presenting marital problems. In introducing her illustrative case material, Miss Penn pointed out that the purpose of the family agency is oriented to the "functioning of the family as a whole," but that "the structure [in the family agency] as a unit must vary with the type of problem that a family brings." Thus the worker has an added responsibility, calling for sociopsychological understanding of the family "to devise a specific structure for a particular familial problem."

Treatment of disturbed parent-child relationships in a family

agency was discussed in a joint session of the child care and delinquency sections, by Elsa Leichter, social caseworker, Jewish Family Service, New York City. As in all cases seeking help from a family agency, this situation is one where "we start out with the assumption that the difficulty, while perhaps most painfully experienced by one person, will have some repercussions on the other members of the family." The first question which naturally arises is "what is wrong with this family that it cannot provide the child with the security he needs?" In case of younger children, she said, work proceeds with parents, but if the child is seven years or older, there is often validity in contact with him also. The beginning phase of work is in helping each family member "move away from his projections" and begin to take responsibility for his part of the problem. Working simultaneously with several family members produces strong emotional responses which, rather than becoming an obstacle to treatment, can become "a powerful dynamic" in treatment, she declared. Miss Leichter gave a detailed account of a case illustration in this area of treatment and concluded that to describe what happens in the family's experience with the agency, one could compare the parents and the child with "three travelers who, having started out from three different places, are trying to meet at one point. The going may be hard, but there is comfort in the knowledge that none of the travelers has to cover the whole distance to get to the others."

Failure to maintain a consistent casework relationship with a homemaker who has been placed in a family situation "will relegate the homemaker to a position of a maid" and thus "important values will be lost," said Katherine R. Knapp, supervisor of casework, Catholic Charities of Pittsburgh, in a paper given before the National Committee on Homemaker Service. By way of casework service the family is aided in adjusting to the sharing of intimate family life with a stranger, the parent being helped to see the homemaker "as a support, not as a rival for authority in the home and the affection of the children." The caseworker must be able to learn children's needs and, working with parents and homemaker, make concrete suggestions to meet these needs. Preparation for termination of the service, the speaker pointed out, is also a responsibility of the caseworker.

The difference in process in handling two counseling cases was described at a casework section meeting by Frank Winer, caseworker at the Minneapolis Jewish Family and Children's Service. Though often the process will primarily concern itself with the behavior and attitudes which are obstacles to a satisfying relationship, this is based on an assumption that "the client is hopeful that the problem can be resolved and has sufficient confidence in his capacity to change," said Mr. Winer. However, when the client feels hopeless and helpless about himself and his problem, "the worker's focus needs to be on these feelings." In the latter case, "non-self acceptance" is likely to be involved, and "when the worker identifies squarely with these feelings and offers help with them, he is communicating a support which the client may feel as hopefulness."

The basic skills in giving "time-limited casework service" were discussed at a meeting of the National Travelers Aid Association by Rachel G. Rottersman, Supervisor of Field Service and In-service Training at the Travelers Aid Society of Chicago. Pointing out that Travelers Aid service is unique in that its intake is based on the symptom of a problem—running away from it, so to speak—rather than offering service which is geared to a particular problem, the speaker said the very nature of the situation calls for a time-limited service. Further, there has been set up a "chain of service" which provides for "rapid evaluation and mobilization of resources for the individual in widely separated geographical areas." All this requires ability in the worker to sharpen diagnostic skill, to hasten establishment of relationships, to increase the speed with which she explores the problem with the client and evaluates the client's strengths and resources for meeting them, and to accelerate greatly the extending of help. Also the giving of services to "moving people" places upon the worker responsibility for a general knowledge of services available in other communities as well as skill in locating and evaluating distant services and resources. Finally, the giving of this service requires of the worker that she not be in conflict about extending help to moving people:

The situation may be a common one. How the client has dealt with it may be classical but the worker must be able to recognize that his feelings about it are unique. The worker must herself be accepting of the person

who meets his problems by movement. She cannot permit herself to be identified with the community rejection of the newcomer or transient.

Services in many settings.—Casework as a service to a variety of individuals in many different settings and faced with many different kinds of problems was discussed and debated in both section and associate group meetings.

The crux of life's problems to the adolescent arises from the confusion he feels about the "right to be adequate," declared John Milner, professor, School of Social Work, University of Southern California, speaking before a group meeting sponsored by the Child Welfare League of America. Mr. Milner said that casework responsibility and treatment of the adolescent are different in that they involve basic personality change and development and also that "the worker must offer himself as a nucleus of identification," a vital need to the young person in trouble. He explained that the adolescent's not feeling that he has the "right to be adequate" is based in our culture, for "a dichotomy exists between what is expected behavior in childhood and what is expected for adulthood." As an example, Mr. Milner said that the aggression needs of most American children are repressed, and yet as adults they are expected to function in a highly individualistic business and professional world where "aggression is essential to success." As a result of their confusion some young people feel that "in order to continue to be loved they must remain children."

One must not overlook the qualms which arise in the adolescent at the thought of separation from his parents, declared Mr. Milner, for this involves becoming independent of authority and at the same time developing needed strengths, which is "a big order for any human being." Although in some cases separation is necessary, it was Mr. Milner's feeling that "for the most part, adolescents are better off living with their own parents until they leave to go to school or take a job." He pointed out that though adolescents seem to demand perfection in their own parents and home situation, they actually possess a great deal of tolerance in living with what may be known as an "undesirable situation." As to the question of whether a boarding home or institution provides the better situation for the adolescent who must be separated from home, Mr.

Milner said that if the young person has had full participation in the process of working out the situation, he will usually be able to judge for himself which would be the more helpful. Mr. Milner closed his paper with some words about the fact that many social workers seem to fear working with adolescents. He thought this was probably due to their own unresolved adolescent conflicts and a distaste for the intensity of relationship which a teen-ager demands. At any rate, he remarked, the caseworker when confronted with all the strong and conflicting feelings which an adolescent brings to his problems can well understand the feelings of parents, boarding parents, and institution staff.

In her remarks as discussant of Mr. Milner's paper, Esther Schour, Administrative Assistant, Jewish Family and Community Service, Chicago, underlined Mr. Milner's point about the internal confusion which is heightened by the inconsistency of environment. Since our society places so much emphasis on economic considerations, she said, obstacles fall in the way of marriage and independence for young people until they are far beyond their physical maturation. Parents are apt to demand more mature judgment but at the same time to impose restrictions since they distrust the impulsiveness of the young person and fear his sexual expression. The adolescent presents a difficult problem even for the well-adjusted parent, she added, and in her experience, treatment was usually needed for both.

In the treatment of neurotic mothers whose children have been referred to a child guidance clinic, there are three essentials, said Helen H. Sherrill, psychiatric social worker, Louisville Mental Hygiene Clinic and Child Study School, speaking before a session sponsored by the American Association of Psychiatric Workers. Dubbing these three essentials the "three *r*'s of therapy," Mrs. Sherrill explained that she referred to recognition, relationship, and regulation. By "recognition" she meant "using every means at our disposal for understanding the kind of person we are dealing with as early in therapy as possible." To clarify the types of mothers with whom she had dealt in these situations, she used Karen Horney's classifications of people suffering from inner conflicts: "the person who moves toward you—the compliant type; the per-

son who moves against you—the aggressive type; and the person who moves away from you—the detached type." By way of case illustrations, Mrs. Sherrill rounded out the picture of the three types of mothers whose patterns of handling their children could be revealed by their manner of approach to the worker, thereby furnishing clues for further treatment.

The relationship between the worker and the mother is a matter of next importance, she went on. "It is the uniqueness of the therapist's attitude which permits the person to change. It is a fairly simple thing for even untrained people to be able to see what is wrong with an individual, but the skill of the therapist lies in his not being involved in the feelings that are causing the patient's difficulty."

As for the third "r"—regulation—Mrs. Sherrill said that the worker's skill lies in being able to regulate the amount of insight in such a way that the mother does not need to erect new defenses but can establish a new relationship with her child as they strive for a satisfactory adjustment to each other.

The real goal in therapy, concluded Mrs. Sherrill, is to help the person accept himself, since his relationship to others and his attitude to himself cannot be separated. If the therapist can deal with the problem as a relationship which is not mutually satisfactory rather than as a relationship in which one or the other party is to blame, the process of helping each to change in the direction of a better adjustment to the other is greatly helped.

Esther E. Glickman, assistant professor, School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago, and Student Supervisor, Child Guidance Clinic, Boles Roberts Memorial Hospital, who commented on Mrs. Sherrill's paper, made the point that in diagnosis, which Mrs. Sherrill had referred to as "recognition," a clear understanding of the character structure and its defenses must be gained but that the important issue, and one which is apt at present to be a controversial one in the child guidance field, is what depth of treatment can follow diagnosis. From her experience, said Miss Glickman, the largest number of mothers require "treatment aimed at modifying defenses and at some of the underlying conflicts," although a small group whose defenses are more flexible and whose

strengths are more readily accessible can use superficial methods of advice and guidance effectively.

Another picture of the work in a child guidance clinic was given on a program of the child care and delinquency sections by Dorothy Hankins, psychiatric social worker, Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic. Describing a series of interviews from a case record carried by her agency, Miss Hankins said that a large number of present-day parents see behavior problems as "emotional" but expect the psychiatrist to find the cause and either change the child or tell the parents how to do it. "We can only assist in the process. If we take over diagnosing, recommending, giving directions, we are emphasizing the role of the clinic at the expense of the parent's own place in doing something constructive about the problems he has with his child," said Miss Hankins. The aim of the clinic social worker is to enable the parents and child so to use clinic resources that the parents can "begin to modify their relation to the child and his problem."

In a paper on casework experience with parents when the children are in their own homes, Helen Weiss, Casework Supervisor, Child and Family Service, Portland, Maine, described to an audience of the Child Welfare League of America four cases in two of which she felt that parents had been helped and in the other two, that the casework had not been of real assistance. In the latter it was finally decided that the parents were not ready to work on their problem in one situation, and in the other the mother was "rooted in a pathological situation of long standing." The speaker made it clear that regardless of the presenting behavior of the children, work in this agency focuses on the parents since it has been found that unless the parent seriously wishes to change the situation little can be achieved by working with the child. In her experience the child's problem is often tied up with an unsatisfactory or a shaky marriage, and thus the parents' determination to work at this problem becomes a crucial determining factor. The worker uses her relationship with the parents to gain understanding of the problem, and this is then used "to sustain, encourage, stimulate, and perhaps challenge the parent to do differently in the situation." This speaker closed her paper with a plea to the casework field to "shift our ener-

gies from a concern with theoretical differences to an honest testing out of results of different approaches. Helpfulness to people in trouble is the only valid check on our theory."

Two sessions of the Committee on Service to Unmarried Parents were devoted to various aspects of working with unmarried mothers. The adolescent unmarried mother has generally not had happy, healthy parental relationships, said Frances Penna, Assistant Case Supervisor, Department of Family and Child Welfare, Westchester County, White Plains, New York. She has suffered deprivation or rejection, is frequently lonely, feeling lost and unloved, and almost always brings an attitude of distrust and resentment. Illustrating her point as to the conflicting and confusing background from which the adolescent unmarried mother usually comes, this speaker said that in these as with most of the cases, one is working with a child who faces not only the difficulties of the average adolescent but those of a deprived, confused child who must make an important adult decision for which she is not prepared. Since these girls are minors, the decision about the child must nearly always be made by the girls' parents but it was felt that the girl must have some participation in the decision and feel that she has a right to say what she feels should happen to her child. In some instances the parent can be helped to recognize some of the feelings and attitudes so that a modification of the family life can be brought about. At the same time, casework help during an experience in a shelter home can sometimes help this very young mother modify some of her attitudes toward her parents in favor of a better relationship with them.

The adolescent unmarried mother is caught in a conflict which has been created by society, said Dr. Melitta Schmideberg, Professor of Psychiatry, Adelphi College, who spoke on the same program. Though the adolescent girl is physically and emotionally capable of intercourse and motherhood, our civilization uses every type of pressure to postpone adulthood, Dr. Schmideberg went on, and thus conflict is inevitable. "If she submits to social codes, the price of adaptation is frequently paid in neuroses and inhibitions interfering later with normal married life. Failure to adapt—unmarried motherhood—on the other hand, results in serious, often punitive,

social and psychological consequences both for the girl and her family." The most stabilizing factor which can help young people over this period is the family relationship, this speaker declared, for "only sufficient affection, security, and companionship can enable the girl to bear the postponements of her impulses satisfactorily." This is admittedly more difficult now than it ever has been, for though Victorian society and family life was harsh, she said, it was stable. Today our attitude is more inconsistent, with little allowance being made for the strength and naturalness of sexual impulses and the burden of restraining herself being placed wholly on the young girl. Dr. Schmideberg believes that the social worker's role is to provide some kind of stabilization which will support the adolescent during her difficult experience and should work toward enabling her eventually to stand on her own feet. In this endeavor, she said, psychoanalytic knowledge is useful "so long as it does not interfere with a spontaneous human attitude." In closing her paper, Dr. Schmideberg told this audience of social workers:

Social work is something in its own right, and not just a poor substitute for, or an adjunct to, psychiatry. Psychiatry has become too proud, social work too timid. Common sense, readiness to help, warmth and efficiency are qualities not to be ashamed of. Social workers should not aim at becoming third-rate therapists. It is true that psychiatry has made important contributions to social work, but psychiatry itself would benefit and widen its scope by learning from social work. I for one am glad to admit my indebtedness to social work.

A case for continuity of service for the unmarried mother was made on another program sponsored by the Committee by Jane G. Judge, Consultant on Child Care Program, Community Service Society of New York. Although the unmarried mother needs a variety of service—medical, shelter, placement and casework—and all are of vital importance, it must be remembered that illegitimate pregnancy is "the symptom of a personality disturbance," and concrete services, no matter how vital, are not the whole answer because the girl's fundamental problem still remains. Mrs. Judge gave two case examples, one showing the use of the casework relationship for self-understanding and another in which only referral to necessary resources was given. She emphasized the fact that social

attitudes have not changed sufficiently to alter the need of the unmarried mother for concealment and that because of this as well as her resistance and panic and the need to break former social relationships, the unmarried mother needs diagnostic appraisal and a treatment plan formulated in one agency with assurance of a continued relationship with the same worker and access to specialized service as needed. The unmarried mother, she concluded, should not be exposed to "a fragmentary approach focused on the symptom of her personality disturbance."

The philosophy of social casework with veterans is the same as it is with any other group, said Dorothy McCague, chief social worker, Veterans Administration Regional Office, Pittsburgh, speaking at a group meeting of the casework section. This speaker said that social services were given in regional offices in relation to a range of veterans' concerns—medical, surgical, psychiatric, rehabilitative, adjudicative, legal, vocational. The veteran has a right to know what information is being shared from one section to another, she said, and usually no information is issued between sections and other agencies without his consent. In describing the role of the social worker she illustrated by saying that in the medical situation the doctor lets the veteran know his diagnosis, but the social worker helps him consider the meaning his diagnosis has for him and what choices he has in the light of his medical recommendation.

Speaking on the same program, Arthur L. Leader, Acting Chief of Social Service, Veterans Administration Hospital, Topeka, Kansas, said that social services are available throughout the hospital experience because illness and hospitalization create a number of social problems and a multitude of feelings for the patient and his family. The social worker is especially qualified, he said, to help patients and their families with their feelings about treatment, to help them utilize appropriate resources, and to help them with their social problems through all phases of hospitalization. At this hospital, he said, psychiatric social work is "a differentiated service with a focus in the situational area." He gave a case illustration showing how psychiatric social work dealt with selected social problems of a psychotic patient and his wife and thus facilitated the total

therapeutic process. The basic aspects of the social worker's job he summarized as "genuine empathy with patients, a dynamic understanding of their capacities and ego strengths, and responsible operation as a member of the psychiatric team."

The use of casework with relatives in a mental hospital was discussed in a meeting sponsored by the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers at which Harry S. Moore, Jr., psychiatric social worker, Veterans Administration Hospital, Coatesville, Pennsylvania, described how casework could be of great value to relatives in revealing their anger, doubts, and fears in relation to one or several aspects of the hospital experience—admission, treatment, or preparation for leaving. It had been his experience too that relatives can be helped to come to decisions on matters of far-reaching importance since the patient's hospitalization may often bring up critical problems of long standing in the family situation. He emphasized the fact that the time of the medical decision that the patient no longer needs hospitalization can often be the most painful point in the whole hospital experience for relatives.

Casework with adult displaced persons was discussed in a group meeting of the casework section by Pauline Gardescu, Executive Secretary, International Institute of Milwaukee County, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. A matter of primary importance for the caseworker in this situation, said Mrs. Gardescu, is to take into account the cultural background of the client, to learn to distinguish between the individual reactions which spring from cultural patterns and those which are dictated by the person's emotional experience. As to the kind of service required, she said that the brief contact was frequently sufficient, since the desire was for technical information, in many cases. Mrs. Gardescu spoke well of Milwaukee's experience in integrating casework and social group work services in behalf of D.P.'s and said that one must remember that responsibility is being shared with other community groups, such as churches and nationality groups. She commented that unanticipated strengths and social adequacy had been found in a majority of the D.P.'s known to her agency.

At a meeting sponsored by the Church Conference of Social Work, Cordelia Cox, Director of New York City's Lutheran Re-

settlement Service, spoke on services to the D.P., particularly those services which help him to become part of the community. We must remember, she emphasized, that once a displaced person finally arrives in his new community, he is no longer a displaced person, and our attitudes toward him must show that we know this. Given reasonably decent and adequate surroundings, said Miss Cox, most displaced persons can function wholesomely and normally. We must help them secure the services they need, she declared, and we must also work at helping them make their contribution economically, socially, and culturally. Describing how, in our mistaken expectations of each other, we in this country and these new citizens both have adjustments to make, she listed the following as the primary needs of the displaced persons: decent jobs; decent housing; a real welcome; the sustained, quiet interest of the persons around them; help in understanding and using our community facilities; special services, such as adult education and English classes and, for some, public maintenance and medical treatment; and finally, help in understanding the ways in which one becomes a contributing member of the community—explanation of the tax structure, registration of eighteen-year-old boys, voluntary contributions, and so on.

In his comment on Miss Cox's paper, Charles S. Sowder, Associate Director, Department for Displaced Persons, Church World Service, stressed that newcomers need to be encouraged to become contributing members of society. Pointing out that for years they had been denied this necessary expression except within the limits of community discipline in the D.P. camp, he said: "Generosity . . . is one of our best American traits, and these new neighbors need for their own sake as well as ours to participate in that privilege." Mr. Sowder emphasized again the great need for understanding—of the reaction to long and sometimes permanent family separation, of the adjustment to work and regular food after such a long period of being deprived of the necessities of life, and of the language difficulties. He struck out at "the reactionary objection to providing D.P.'s with assistance at public cost," pointing out that the vast majority of the 334,000 people who are permitted to come into our country will be employed, productive members of society and that their taxes will not only cover the cost of relief to an occasional

former D.P., but will also contribute tax money to the total welfare of the community.

Casework with emotionally disturbed clients both in the non-clinical and clinical setting was described in a pair of papers at a group meeting of the casework section. Reva Rockmore, Assistant Supervisor, New York Travelers Aid Society, said that in the non-clinical setting, the caseworker must be able to relate to the client in regard to the problem which the client sees as important, and to evaluate the client's personality strengths and weaknesses in the process of clarifying his situation. The caseworker, she said, "uses his awareness of the dynamics of human behavior to understand how and if the client may be helped," and much depends on the caseworker's ability, his clarity of focus, his awareness of his own skills and limitations. The caseworker is responsible for determining the extent to which emotional problems immobilize the client, and psychiatric referral can only be indicated if the client is emotionally and intellectually ready for this.

Basically, casework in the psychiatric setting is no different from that in any other type of setting, reported Joseph Andriola, chief psychiatric social worker of Patton State Hospital in California, in a paper read for him in his absence. He commented that the use of such ambiguous terms as "clinic casework," "therapeutic casework," and "casework counseling" seemed to him "semantic confusions and growing pains in a young profession." In the mental hospital, he said, the medical staff's emphasis is on the patient's illness, while the caseworker's emphasis is on his "wellness," his social relationships and his adjustment to the community. The caseworker's job relates to five areas—admission, social adjustment in the hospital, relationships to family and community while in hospital, separation from hospital, and, finally, adjustment outside the hospital after leaving and during furlough or convalescent status. Mr. Andriola emphasized that the successful caseworker in this setting "is not the one who becomes an amateur psychiatrist . . . but the one who is emotionally secure enough to know both the scope and the limitations of his own profession."

In another paper, this time presented before a meeting of the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, Mr. Andriola

made a plea for psychiatric social workers to change their attitudes toward work in mental hospitals. Psychiatric social work, he declared, has come a long way since its beginnings in insane asylums forty years ago. It has produced a sizable literature, built up a strong professional association, and extended its influence beyond the hospital into the community. However, he observed, in the last two decades it has rejected hospital work, due, he felt, to "mistaken" ideas that good casework cannot be done in hospitals, that the hospitals are usually isolated and pay inadequate salaries, that psychotics are not treatable, that quality supervision is not available. He thought it more likely that the real reasons lay in the "romance between psychoanalysis and social casework," which makes caseworkers prefer the child guidance clinic or other community psychiatric service, where they carry a treatment function and have analysts available for consultation or, in some cases, supervision. He suggested that this trend, like the popularity of "intelligence tests" of earlier days, may "be frowned upon by the elite caseworkers of ten or twenty years from now," having proved to be a fad.

Another basic reason for the rejection of hospital work, he commented, "may be the fact that despite our pious verbalizations, perhaps we do not quite accept the mental hospital patient." He challenged his audience as to whether "we really believe what we tell the public—that a psychosis is no more a disgrace or something to be hushed and denied than pneumonia or a fractured tibia."

Acknowledging that work in this setting meant long hours and considerably higher case loads than are recommended by the Association's committee on psychiatric social work (which is also currently urging that the "trend away from hospital service be reversed"), Mr. Andriola told of the urgent need for experienced caseworkers to bring their skills and knowledge of community relationships to the mental hospitals. "The time has come," he concluded, "for fewer semantic acrobatics about what is psychotherapy and who does it. What is needed, instead, is more rolling up of sleeves and getting to work in one of the most challenging settings available—the mental hospital."

Another stepchild in the casework world—work in rural areas—was discussed on a program sponsored by the Child Welfare League

of America. Marie C. Scott, State Case Supervisor, Kansas Children's Service League, said that major policy-making responsibility must be carried by a small executive committee, since full board meetings and membership meetings must be held infrequently because of distances to be traveled. For the same reason, workers carry much smaller case loads than their city colleagues do. Because of the lack of such facilities in rural areas, close relationships are maintained with near-by city medical and psychiatric resources. The challenging and various nature of the job calls for the best social work, she said, but "few trained workers are willing to serve" in this setting.

Speaking on the same program, Marjorie Foulke, Case Supervisor of the Vermont Children's Aid Society, seemed to think that rural social workers sometimes create their own problems. The transportation problem should not be minimized, she said, but she thought "there is danger of seeing it sometimes as being more insurmountable for the client than it really is." If the caseworker assumes that he must go to the client, he may be promoting dependence, or it may seem to the client that the caseworker "is taking something away from him," and consequently this may be "the means of his withdrawing, in self-defense, from the service and help we have to offer." Another aspect of work in rural areas which this speaker felt workers had been prone to accept thoughtlessly is the kind of relationship with the client. Since people are more informal, and relationships are freer and easier, it is a temptation to "help people on an easy, informal, neighbor-to-neighbor basis" rather than to give them the benefit of really professional service. She made the point that the worker should be responsible for defining her own role rather than to expect the client to do it for her. The necessity for geographical assignment of case loads, she said, means that workers must carry administrative and public relations jobs in addition to various casework services. This handicaps the worker in acquiring special skills and places unusual importance on supervision, for the caseworker needs more help with situations in which she has little or no experience.

The caseworker in the day nursery is in a position to be of service to both parents and children, said Alfreda Yeomans, Executive Di-

rector, Rochester (New York) Children's Nursery. Speaking at a meeting of the Child Welfare League, she outlined the specific services which the caseworker was called upon to give in accepting children and parents for service, in helping them make use of the nursery in relation to their problem, and in participation with other professional staff, executive, board, and community in the development of a sound program. The speaker gave illustrative material showing that parents seek the services of the day nursery for many different reasons, and emphasized that "the staff must never forget that its goal is to help parents meet the problem which has necessitated their child's care so that eventually care in the nursery can be discontinued." Though there is somewhat widespread acceptance of an idea that nursery care is a more or less permanent solution, she said this was not generally true; for it is recognized that nursery care is, for the child, life in an institution, which cannot be a substitute for genuine family life.

Basic to the administration of relief is recognition of what is involved for the recipient, the giver, and the community, said Arnette Burwell, Director of Training, Department of Public Welfare in Detroit, addressing a group meeting of the casework section, and the constructive use of relief requires understanding of behavior and application of the skills which casework provides. This speaker pointed out that because being in the dependent position of seeking relief generates hostility within the individual, and because the position of the giver naturally imparts an authority to the worker, the greatest care must be taken to insure that the worker will understand both the client and himself. In the end, the use of casework skills will determine whether relief will help mobilize the capacity of the individual for independence or will result in his permanent dependence, declared the speaker.

Casework in a medical setting was discussed in a number of sessions. Speakers at the first of three meetings sponsored by the American Association of Medical Social Workers set out to demonstrate generic and specific concepts in medical social work and to examine the effect upon medical social work of the growing tendency to consider illness in terms of diagnostic groups. Julie Escher and Marion Thurman, medical social workers from New York Hospital

and Montefiore Hospital in New York City, and Ruth Butler, Case Supervisor of the Social Service Department, Boston Eye and Ear Infirmary, presented cases of poliomyelitis, cancer, and eye disease, respectively. In each instance the patient had a chronic illness needing long-time, expensive, specialized medical care, and in each case the worker was able to help with concrete problems confronting the patient. It was shown that certain crises were prevented by casework help and the patient was supported until he was ready to assume more responsibility to adjust to his life-situation. In the case of the cancer patient, the caseworker was called upon to render a service about which there is little in the literature. Work with the patient who is in the last stages of illness, said Miss Thurman, "reminds us that there are many areas in which casework is impotent." "We have no magic to dissipate the anxiety of the patient who is rapidly and obviously deteriorating," she said. "If he is fearful and depressed, there is overwhelming reason for it, and we can expect no happy change in the situation. We cannot pretend that our professional skills or knowledge are capable of eliminating or even greatly helping the desperation that so often appears" in this patient. The valuable service which the caseworker can offer this patient, however, she said, is "something which, in a way, eludes definitive explanation, but which is often the only thing that can have any meaning to him. . . . It is, in part, the ability to communicate our sustained feeling that the sick human being is still important. It is the continuing affirmation of the patient's identity when everything in his environment conspires to destroy it."

In her remarks as discussant of these papers, Muriel Gayford, Lecturer in Medical Social Work, Department of Social Economy and Social Research, Bryn Mawr College, outlined five generic concepts basic to casework: the necessity for the worker to understand the meaning of the client's situation to him, the diagnostic process or evaluation of a situation, the value of a clear appropriate focus, the professional use of the casework relationship, and the effectiveness of a supportive type of treatment. Medical casework based on these concepts must be integrated with medical care, the tempo of which influences the tempo of the caseworker, she said. The advantages and disadvantages of medical casework with one

diagnostic group were brought out in her remarks—the increased familiarity with the problem and opportunity of working with a group of medical men interested in a particular diagnosis must be weighed against the danger of a worker's concentrating on one diagnosis and becoming too unfamiliar with other problems.

Social casework as part of the medical care of children was the subject of a group meeting of the casework section, when Celia Moss, Director, Social Service Department, Montefiore Hospital, Pittsburgh, discussed casework with the child in a hospital setting, and Jessie Peake, Supervisor, Department of Health Services, Children's Aid Society, New York City, discussed casework with convalescent children.

Miss Moss pointed out that it is necessary to see the differences between the emotional meaning of a child's illness to himself and its meaning to the parents. A case illustration emphasized the fact that when faced by the child because of illness, separation from a family where relationships are not secure is much more threatening than when family relationships are more steady. "The medical social worker considers illness not only in the light of the physician's etiological information, but in terms of the meaning the particular illness has for a specific patient and his family." Equipped with this knowledge and her understanding of the dynamics of human behavior, the medical social worker then begins where the patient and his family are in helping them use their intellectual, physical, and emotional capacities not only to meet the problems in the illness experience, but to do something about them as the patient moves toward maximum social and physical recovery.

The second paper described three types of convalescent programs—home care, foster home convalescent care, and group care—describing professional staff needed for each, the caseworker's function in each, and the advantages of each plan in relation to the child and his family. The speaker emphasized the fact that convalescence must be considered to include the medical, social, and psychological recovery of the child.

The delinquent.—Who is the delinquent? What does he need? How can he be helped? These questions provided a point of departure at a panel discussion sponsored by the National Association

of Training Schools and participated in by three psychiatric experts. Dr. Richard L. Jenkins, Chief, Research Section, Psychiatry and Neurology Division of the Veterans Administration, said that any critical thinking on the problems of the delinquent must start with an understanding that delinquency is the product of two distinct and contrasting processes: "the failure or incapacity to adapt to social demands" and "a predatory adaptation to the weakness of society." The extreme results of these two processes were represented, he said, in the unadjustable psychopath and the adept professional criminal. While the characteristics of both are present in most delinquents, he felt that one or the other is usually preponderant. Dr. Jenkins expanded the picture of these two types of delinquents by describing the "clusters" of outstanding characteristics and behavior of 3,000 boys and girls examined at Chicago's Institute of Juvenile Research, and drove home the point that "early, profound and continued emotional frustration," particularly relating to maternal rejection, was the background of the unsocialized delinquents. In the individual of the second group, those "socialized within a delinquent group," there was typically "an adequate fundamental socialization in relationship with mother," and this socialization, plus the "failure of fraternal function" and "neighborhood deviation pressures," resulted in his falling under the influence of the delinquent group.

Dr. Irving Knapp, psychiatrist at the Warwick (New York) State Training School for Boys, said that it is difficult to find any helpful features in the backgrounds of the boys who come into the training school, for usually "maternal influence has been at a minimum" and the boys have grown up in a "jungle environment." The task is to replace the jungle values with better ones, and this is "not an easy thing to do." Dr. Knapp gave great emphasis to the important role of cottage parents in this reeducative process. Treatment consists in building up a sense of security and support rather than "an exploration into the unconscious," he said, and for this, cottage parents with warmth of personality are badly needed. A variety of personalities among cottage parents is desirable, he said, declaring that establishing civil service examinations for these jobs would be "a step in the wrong direction," since cottage parents should be

selected for their personalities, and this is something "you cannot test—you must feel."

Another grouping of delinquent types was offered by Hyman Grossbard, Clinical Director, Hawthorne-Cedar Knolls School. The social delinquent, the gang member, he said, is "usually an ambivalent, conflicted youngster guilty about his antisocial activities." A second type is one usually referred to as the psychopathic personality; a third, the psychotic, whose delinquency is a symptom of his illness; and a fourth, the type whose antisocial behavior is primarily symptomatic of an emotional disturbance. Dynamic understanding of the diagnosis, causation, and motivation of delinquent behavior is "an essential preliminary to treatment," to be accomplished by "continuous formulation of his problems, pointing out the incongruity and irrationality of his behavior and thus converting his delinquencies into symptoms and thereby bringing anxiety to the surface."

In discussing aspects of reeducation, Mr. Grossbard questioned the idea that the psychopath is untreatable. Psychiatric diagnostic categories, rather than being "pure entities . . . results of a specific germ," are now conceived as "variations and combinations of emotional disturbances," he said. The psychopath "seldom appears in his classical form" and many "have the capacity to respond to treatment," he declared.

An examination of resistance in the delinquent was made at a session of the section on delinquency by Dr. Harris B. Peck, senior psychiatrist in the treatment clinic of the New York City Court of Domestic Relations. All social agencies which treat delinquents see a considerable number of individuals whose resistance to treatment is so great that either they are not accepted at intake or they make little progress if treated, he said. Since most delinquents have had experiences which "are perceived by them as deprivation," the approach to them ought to take this into consideration. As we understand better the relation between the individual delinquent and social defects such as inadequate housing, schools, recreation, and medical facilities, he declared, "we are increasingly turning our attention to revising our present inadequate social arrangements rather than attempting to resolve an unending series of critical

situations for individual delinquents." He cited the work of the New York City Youth Board and the Central Harlem Street Clubs Project as examples of attempting to meet uncovered needs of children, and recommended that agencies "stop sitting and waiting for accessible clients to come to them." New methods call for more flexible techniques, Dr. Peck pointed out, and he strongly recommended the use of group therapy on the basis of his own experience in the court treatment clinic.

This year upward of one thousand homeless youths are going to be "cast upon the breeding grounds of crime because the cities provide no substitute for the homes they have lost," predicted Elmer W. Reeves, Administrative Assistant to the Chief Probation Officer of the New York City Court of General Sessions. Speaking before a meeting of the National Probation and Parole Association, Mr. Reeves said the answer to the problem these boys present for themselves and for the cities to which they come is in setting up "residence clubs," apartments in middle-class residential sections, to be supervised by a married couple and a student assistant. Such clubs would "give homeless young men a moral setting that approximates a home," without the "stigma that goes with so-called 'shelters,'" he said. He recommended that the clubs be maintained through public funds and that the program help the young men work toward becoming self-sustaining.

Another solution to the problem of the young men in urban areas who are subject to those "adverse influences which . . . impel the youth toward conflict with himself and society" was suggested by Raymond M. Hilliard, New York City's Commissioner of Welfare, in an address at a dinner given by the Big Brothers of America. Today more than ever, we realize "the need for conserving our most valuable resource of all, our youth," said Mr. Hilliard, and at the same time there is urgent need for conserving our natural resources. He urged setting up once again a series of Civilian Conservation Camps for youths who need the opportunities such a program can offer.

One session of the National Probation and Parole Association was given to discussion of the sex offender by Dr. Leo L. Orenstein, former psychiatrist of the New York City General Sessions Court

and now staff member of New York University-Bellevue Medical Center; and Henry C. Hill, chairman, Pennsylvania State Board of Parole. Dr. Orenstein told his audience that the public's immediate and hostile reaction to a sexual psychopath tends to limit attempted cures for the offender, without trying to wipe out basic causes for such behavior. He proposed a system of therapy for particular abnormalcy where an offender would not be labeled "criminal," since there are differences of degree of sex deviation similar to differences among those who are mentally ill.

More menacing than those who commit violent sex offenses, said Mr. Hill, are "hidden" sex criminals—"predatory" homosexuals who "contaminate the youth of the community." In most states, he said, the only treatment for sex perverts is imprisonment, which simply provides a breeding ground for more perversion. He said he did not know to what extent "heredity or glands" could be blamed for these offenses, but he felt that one cause was the deterioration of social and moral values "in a world where discipline and self-restraint and consideration for the rights of others have given way to self-indulgence, uninhibited expression of the ego, and the attitude that it is smart to get away with something."

On another program of the Association, J. Howard McGrath, Attorney General of the United States, told probation officers that the "whole crime problem in the United States is essentially a youth problem" and emphasized the fact that respect for law must be enforced among adults, for "youngsters are influenced by actions of adults." There is need for psychiatrist, doctor, psychologist, sociologist, and social worker to coordinate their efforts to aid the youth who gets into difficulties with the law, he said. He paid tribute to the juvenile court as an expression of "personalized justice" and said that in this as in many other areas, there must be constant improvement in personnel, for "one of the most important requirements is intelligent, trained, and competent staff." Detention, he said, should be protective in character rather than penal. The Federal Government is giving leadership in the effort to improve administration of detention institutions, he said, citing several Federal institutions as "setting a fine example for the country as a whole."

Speaking on the same program, Kenneth Johnson, Dean of the New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, described recent planning in the School to expand opportunities for students wishing to specialize in the correctional field. Pointing to historical data he showed that charitable and correctional work grew up side by side and that in the early days of the School a substantial proportion of the courses was geared to the training of correctional workers. The trend toward a generic and integrated approach to social work training and the development of the mental hygiene approach with a resulting emphasis on the individual in relation to his family, as well as the feeling that casework could not very well be practiced in the authoritative setting, resulted in a decrease in the number of such courses, he said. "The same medicine will never cure all persons manifesting similar symptoms," he stated. "Correction calls for individualization—and that is the hard core of social casework. That is the basic contribution the professional schools are prepared to make."

The functions and responsibilities of parole boards and their members were the subject of another session of the Association. The most difficult and the primary duty of any parole board is the proper selection of the individuals to be given an opportunity to complete their sentences on parole, said George G. Killinger, chairman of the United States Board of Parole. The board makes these selections not as a form of reward for good conduct, but as a part of the treatment program, based on the principle that training and treatment in prison must be followed by a satisfactory community adjustment in order for the correctional process to be complete. Describing the system of parole under which the twenty-seven Federal institutions operate, Mr. Killinger said that one of the most important phases of the whole rehabilitative process is "proper and intelligent parole supervision." He gave a detailed account of the method of supervision employed, mentioning that some offenders need only quarterly reports and interviews, while others require weekly and often daily contacts.

Statistical studies show that the greater proportions of parole violations occur shortly after release, said Mr. Killinger. For example, 82 percent of the violations for which warrants were issued

in 1949 occurred within a year of release. The number of such warrants, he commented, has shown continuous increase since 1941, and this he thought might be due to a "lower grade prison population," poorer economic conditions in the community, and more intensive supervision and a more rigid policy on the part of paroling authority. However, he thought it also significant that there has been a change in the age group of offenders as well as in the type of offense. Since 1941 the number of commitments for liquor-law violations has dropped from 46.6 percent to 12.2 percent of the total, and in the same period the number convicted of driving stolen automobiles across state lines increased from 6.9 percent to 14.8 percent. Liquor-law violators are usually in their middle thirties, while those who steal automobiles tend to be ten to fifteen years younger, he explained. Analysis of the 1949 violations shows a predominance of youthful offenders, he reported.

The first attempts to administer parole on a professional casework basis were made in New York twenty years ago, reported Thomas J. McHugh, Assistant Director, Buffalo District, New York State Division of Parole, at a group meeting of the National Probation and Parole Association. Since that time, parole "has assumed a new place in the field of social work, combining to the greatest effectiveness the law-enforcement-casework function," he said. The objective of parole is protection of the community, which can be best achieved by rehabilitation and readjustment of the offender, and this furnishes the basis for the casework function. Mr. McHugh outlined the services which could be rendered through the parole investigation, the parole board hearing, the prerelease period, and the period of supervision, and said that there was involved "a discriminating use of authority, coupled with the utilization of modern and practical techniques of social casework." Special assets, knowledge, and qualifications are needed, for the caseworker "must be prepared at any time to transfer from his role as a caseworker to his role as a law-enforcement officer when the interest of the community requires it."

The speaker urged that opportunities for training be provided for parole officers, and that, in the midst of the present shortage of skilled caseworkers in this field, planning for the future must in-

clude realization that "properly trained competent personnel form the nucleus of any progressive parole agency." In past years, he remarked, "an extraordinary amount of research has been conducted on parole prediction without practical or significant results," while "the really significant factor," parolee supervision, "should receive emphasis in study and research above all others." Finally, an intensive educational program is needed to change current concepts of crime and punishment and to secure public acceptance of the validity of the concept of rehabilitation of the offender, so that "the community will have the best possible protection and the offender will have the opportunity for adjustment to which he is entitled."

In a group meeting of the National Association of Training Schools, Benjamin I. Coleman, Supervisor of the Aftercare Division of the New York State Training School for Boys at Warwick, described the aftercare program of his agency. The caseworker maintains contact with the boy from the time of his commitment until the end of his period of probation, working continuously toward the end of the boy's readjustment to community, home, and school. The agency maintains a small foster placement service which has proven to be a valuable resource in this effort. Aftercare, said Mr. Coleman, is an extension of the training school program to plan for the child's total needs and to help the child use available resources at points where they are needed. The child's relationship with the social worker is a stabilizing influence which has been of noticeable value in improving the attitude of the young offender during his first weeks in the training school.

"Social casework in the juvenile court must be an integral part of the judicial function, not something subsidiary to, or apart from, that function. It is geared toward stimulating change in the offender by holding him strictly accountable for his behavior and offering him a helping experience developed around his use of the structure of the court," said C. Wilson Anderson, Director, Family Court of Delaware, Wilmington, at a joint meeting of the child care and delinquency sections. Mr. Anderson described three phases of court process—the preliminary hearing, the presentence study, and supervision on probation—to illustrate his basic tenet about casework in

this setting. "The authority of the court skillfully imposed as a barrier to the free and limitless play of the juvenile's conflicting wants and impulses, and under its relentless yet understanding pressure necessitating deliberate and responsible choice," is found in all units of the court's process, said the speaker. Social casework which focuses on the process is applicable to juvenile and adult offenders and "bids fair progressively to change the whole concept of the administration of criminal justice."

Vocational guidance and the sympathetic understanding of the Big Brother are an unbeatable combination in the rehabilitation of the so-called "problem boy," declared Russell J. Fornwalt, Vocational Counselor, Big Brother Movement, New York City, addressing a meeting of Big Brothers of America. Working together, the volunteer social worker and the professional counselor will "find more constructive outlets for a boy's energies and tendencies," for "the very qualities that get a boy into trouble can be converted into job assets." For example, said Mr. Fornwalt, the aggressiveness which makes a boy a gang leader may some day make him a good civic leader, salesman, or Marine sergeant, or the exhibitionism which annoys his schoolteachers may be put to good use in acting or music. However, the Big Brother can do much more than give vocational guidance, such as helping the boy to gain wider knowledge of the world and to see a career as something more than a means of earning a living.

Services to the child.—"Young people from childhood through adolescence have two major concerns—to feel safe and to have fun," Lester Granger, first Vice President of the Conference and Executive Director of the National Urban League, told members of the Child Welfare League at the annual meeting of that organization. "But it is difficult to have fun at a funeral," he went on, sketching in the hazards of modern living which have so adversely affected family life, "and it is impossible to feel safe on the edge of a smoldering volcano." He suggested that perhaps more of social work's professional time and energy could be expended in reaching out to cover unserved areas rather than in making further refinements of the existing services, "because we must make the best possible disposal of our too-limited professional resources." Is there any

way, he asked, that the child care agency could rearrange its services so as to give, in company with other community agencies, the fun and safety upon which children's future depends?

Speaking on the same program, Melvin A. Glasser, Executive Director of the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, said he believed that "we are actually losing ground in services to children." There are today 45 percent more children under the age of five than there were at the time of the 1940 White House Conference, he said, and there has been a 55 percent increase in cost for services. But how many budgets, he asked, have risen 90 percent in those ten years? We do have better trained personnel, he added, but fewer facilities and funds than we did ten years ago.

Current issues which Mr. Glasser feels the Conference must grapple with are the relationship between public and private agencies, the fact that "the needs of the whole child must be seen," and the need to relate basic research on child life to children's programs. It is his belief that the Conference should try to "encourage unconventional thinking," to help people break away from stereotypes in thinking about needs for children.

Reporting at a meeting of the section on public welfare the results of a series of discussions by a special committee of the American Public Welfare Association, Fred DelliQuadri, Superintendent of the Illinois Department of Public Welfare's Division of Child Welfare, said that in past years the term "child welfare" has emphasized the interrelationships of all conditions affecting child life. In the light of this broadened concept the special committee had concluded that a public welfare program for children should include: social services for children in the communities in which they live; adequate financial assistance, through social insurance or public welfare programs, to safeguard family life; counseling and referral services for parents and other adults to encourage wise use of available resources; protective services; foster family care; casework services for those responsible for children in their own homes; safeguarding of interstate placement of children; cooperative planning to make available social services to courts handling children's cases; administration of services to youth and children through the already organized state departments of public welfare; research di-

rected toward more information about the child's emotional, mental, and social growth.

Achievement of this program demands partnership of Federal, state, and local governments, and voluntary agencies, said Mr. Delli-Quadri, as well as sufficient and trained personnel, and support of needed legislation.

Speaking on a casework section program, Esther Lazarus, Assistant Director, Department of Public Welfare, Baltimore, discussed the use of social casework in the Aid to Dependent Children program. Calling attention to current attacks on the program, Miss Lazarus said she believed these were leveled against the granting of assistance, for which the law provides, for children who are in need because of separation of parents or the continued absence of one or the other from the home. This, she said, "does not carry respectability in relation to need," in the eyes of society. Thus, "the dichotomy involved in the administration of the ADC program is to offer the money payment in such a way that will insure the dignity and freedom of the individual, and to face the feeling of the critical community and, indeed, that of the client herself in accepting or rejecting this service."

ADC must be the means of maintaining a home in which children have some security, and in which the parent makes an effort to provide responsible care of children. This, in some homes, calls for a change, and one of the problems is how much change must parents make in order to qualify for the grant? In her agency, Miss Lazarus said, the ADC worker offers protective services as a way by which a parent can get help with the situation. But where neglect or delinquency is flagrant and the parent is unable to take help, the agency feels a responsibility to bring the case before the court.

Describing through case material a number of situations in which casework service is utilized to help the client make the greatest use of ADC service, Miss Lazarus concluded:

The service may be very helpful to relieve tension and strain sufficiently to enable the parent to make a choice about what she wants for herself and her children and plan for the future. The client does not like to accept the need for assistance any more than does the critical community. Living on an assistance grant is not good for anyone, and it is false for us

to try to make it good. This always will be true as long as public assistance is based on a means test with its inherent restrictions and inadequate standards. Could this explain some of the attacks against the ADC program? I believe that it does.

Trends in foster care of children were discussed in a group meeting of this section on child care by Spencer H. Crookes, Executive Director, Child Welfare League of America. As early as 1945, said Mr. Crookes, it became apparent that there was an increase in the numbers of children bearing the brunt of disorganization from broken homes and parental irresponsibility, and that children had more difficult problems stemming out of parental "refusal to act for other than economic reasons." At present, out of a child population of 45,000,000, approximately 6,000,000 are living in homes disrupted by death, divorce, or separation; and approximately 4,000,000 of school age are not attending school because of inadequate facilities or lax attendance regulations. The increasing birth rate, continued employment of women with children, increasing tendencies toward family breakdown, and the postwar housing shortage have all been determinants in the pressures for children's services.

A most alarming factor, this speaker felt, was that the public at large has not kept pace with either the financial requirements for good care, nor the meaning of good care. Good child care has become increasingly expensive, he said, and there is little likelihood that expense can be reduced, yet there is apprehension about extending public welfare programs, and community chest allocations for child welfare, though consistently rising, "by no means equate increased service demands." Further, the majority of laymen still think of child welfare in terms of "orphans" and "homeless waifs," having no idea of what is meant by a good foster family program nor the importance of adequate ADC grants and casework services in both ADC and general assistance.

The era when foster family care was hailed as the answer for every child has now passed, reported Mr. Crookes, and group care is coming back into its own. The swing of the pendulum appears to have had its value, in that selection of the kind of care required

by the individual child is increasingly being made in terms of the child's own need, and the relative advantages of the institution and the foster home are weighed in more realistic ways. Replacement of congregate buildings wherever possible by cottage home programs within the institution, or adoption of the "unit apartment" construction, has been an outcome of emphasis on specialized types of group care. Training programs for cottage parents is one of the great current needs. In general, it is now felt that babies and preschool children benefit more from foster home care than from institutional care, but otherwise selection of children for group care is done on the basis of personality and emotional needs.

At the same time, the use of foster family care is on the increase, reported Mr. Crookes, who estimated that "not less than 60 percent of the care provided for children outside their own homes is through the use of this resource." Additional staff and increased boarding rates have increased availability of foster homes, but there is still a lack resulting in emphasis on sustained programs for recruiting and maintaining homes. Like cottage parents, foster parents are receiving more attention and casework service, in recognition of their key importance in the program. An increased use of subsidized homes for temporary care of infants, adolescent boys and girls, and boarding care for unmarried mothers and their children, was also noted by the speaker. Two of the greatest gaps in foster family care are in the provision for Negro children and for large numbers of children in the rural population.

Though it is encouraging that twenty-two states have in the past three years passed adoption laws or amendments, "good adoptive legislation is not enough," said Mr. Crookes. Services and facilities are needed to carry out the intent of law, and what is needed is the means to strengthen staff and administrative support. Also it must be remembered that it is impossible to maintain a good adoption program when general assistance, family service, ADC, medical and placement services are inadequate. Private agencies cannot meet all the demands now being placed on adoption agencies, for they would do so at the expense of other kinds of care; but development of public adoption services brings serious problems, not the

least of which is the move "into this specialized and skilled area before other basic public child-placing services are secured and functioning effectively."

The day care center, need for which arises from changing culture patterns in the area of women working outside the home, is being regarded more and more as a supplementary service to child welfare agencies, and a means of strengthening the family unit. One must remember that substandard programs must be prevented by a sound licensing program, and also that it is dangerous to assume that all children can benefit from group experience, but, said this spokesman for the child welfare field, "we welcome the new stature that day care is assuming."

Two distinct problems relate to all these trends, concluded Mr. Crookes—the need to "tell the public at large honestly and fully what is involved in a good child care program and what it costs," and the necessity to "stop talking about public and private responsibility and do something about it." Both private and public funds are necessary for an adequate program, he said, and we must agree that the public has a right to know how much of a job its funds are accomplishing. "What reason is there for a Red Feather contributor to increase his pledge," he asked, "if he has not been given cold facts as to the extent of coverage of his previous contribution?" The public is not aware, either, of the extent to which public funds are subsidizing private agency budgets, and there is the responsibility to inform the people about this so that "community by community, state by state, we can sit down together to create independent voluntary services which are so essential to good governmental ones." The child-placing agency receiving large amounts of public funds on a broad subsidy basis, he argued, "ultimately cannot be an independent and free agent in creating and carrying out its policies."

In her remarks as discussant of Mr. Crookes's paper, Loa Howard, administrator of Oregon's State Public Welfare Commission, said that those who complain about and fear the development of public services to children "must recognize that the expansion of public services in this area is in response to a very great need." She placed strong emphasis on citizen participation in the planning, interpreta-

tion, and administration of these programs. "In planning for children and youth," she asked, "are we considering what the children and young people are thinking about and wanting, or are we planning for them from our own points of view?" Lay citizens need help in understanding the meaning of foster care in the life of a child, in order to discharge their civic responsibility. Public agencies must get into the record the kinds of things they are doing, she said, for the literature in the field is "woefully inadequate." Written records of program planning, community organization, special studies, for instance, are needed by the practitioner, administrator, and teacher, she declared.

In a group meeting of the casework section, Ruth Weisenbarger, Assistant Director, Sheltering Arms Children's Service, New York City, discussed casework with the child in foster home placement. Miss Weisenbarger predicted a marked reduction in the number of children "required to make the more difficult adjustment through years of foster care." Reviewing recent changes in trend of thought about foster care, she said:

Many of us now hopefully foresee a more limited period of foster home care for most children. With a greater degree of professional maturity we can with sureness help a child to use his foster home experience into which his life's reality has forced him, if we are working toward greater security for the child than can ever be offered in continued placement. That many children may return to their own families is a more real possibility than we once believed.

Through improvement of work with foster parents, including sharing with them the providing of warmth and security for the child, as well as more direct sharing of life experience with him, casework can become more fundamentally helpful to the child, she said:

The caseworker is fundamentally ready to be used professionally by the child, figuratively and literally as he reaches for her hand, seeking support from her. She can then sensitively respond to the fundamental questions he must resolve, no matter how directly and bluntly voiced, or how subtly expressed, without words. She must help him in his own reality to find a sense of self as an individual with some of the experiences, confusions, and changes that extend beyond those involved in the natural growth process. The child's need, on varying levels, to settle for

himself the rejection that seems inherent in foster child status is evidenced when the caseworker's relationship with him is sustained.

On a program of the National Association of Training Schools, Susanne Schulze, associate professor, University of Chicago, outlined the Chicago plan of giving semiprofessional training for house parents in an institution. A cooperative project between the graduate school of social work and the institutions, the plan provides for a period of nine months' training combining academic courses and field work. In-service staff development for cottage parents was discussed on the same program by Morris F. Mayer, Resident Director, Bellefaire School, Cleveland:

Although we regard supervision as the main tool in establishing a democratic staff structure and in the training of adequate house parents, it is necessary that institutional philosophy and policy provide the opportunity for house parents to participate fully in the institutional planning. . . . The house parent staff have to be developed as equal members of the professional team in order to establish a democratic, progressive child care institution. Such development can only be fruitful if the institution has both, caseworker and house parent-supervisor.

There was recognition, on the Conference program, that the legal guardianship of children is becoming an increasingly important problem for social agencies because so many children who need their services are separated from their parents by death, divorce, desertion, or casual passing on of children to relatives and non-relatives. In a session sponsored by the section on child care, Irving Weissman, Professor of Social Research, Tulane University School of Social Work, stated that there is provision in all states for court appointment of legal guardians of children who have lost their parents, but according to a recent study made by the United States Children's Bureau, little use is being made of these laws, partly because they are not mandatory, and partly because no adequate machinery has been provided for using the guardianship procedure effectively. The speaker urged that child welfare workers examine state and local provisions and practices in this area, and pointed up several issues which must be clarified: whether a personal guardian should be required for every child; which of the several courts in states now having jurisdiction over children should appoint guard-

ians of children; how guardians should be compensated in view of their lack of legal obligation; whether or not social services should be provided to the courts to help in selecting and supervising guardians; and whether or not social agencies should accept appointment as guardians of children.

Alex Elson, lawyer, and lecturer at the University of Chicago's School of Social Service Administration, in his comments on the paper, said that the child without property stands less chance of getting legal representation than the adult without property, because the latter can seek out the legal aid organizations. The fact that lawyers are apt to be more willing to represent people in profitable cases he felt was partly due to the law schools' emphasis on "bread-and-butter courses." The success of the Children's Bureau recommendations rests in some measure on the possibility of a change in teaching in the law schools, he said, and he thought the study should be taken up with the schools.

Alan Keith-Lucas, Director of the Child Welfare Division of the Louisiana Department of Public Welfare, said that social workers have been "appallingly casual about a basic human need—the need for a child to have someone legally responsible for him." He felt there was serious question about trying to revamp a legal procedure without "rethinking the whole problem of who becomes responsible when a child's parents fail him." Sometimes, he pointed out, it is necessary to replace parental responsibility only temporarily. Then too there is the situation where there are no relatives available, in which case foster parents may sometimes, but not always, fill the bill. There is no point in the "nominal guardianship," he declared, and it is necessary to be realistic about the problem.

"We should assume there is a suitable home for every placeable child and that it is our business to find it," declared Bernice Daniels, caseworker for the Spence-Chapin Adoption Service, New York City, in her remarks on a panel discussion on adoption sponsored by the Child Welfare League. The speaker brought out the fact that the prediction of pigmentation is an important aspect of adoption in working with Negro families. Often there is a preference for coloring, some requesting children who are lighter skinned than

the applying parents. The adoption agency must recognize and accept this just as it does other social values, she said.

In the experience of her agency, said Lois Wildy, Director of Casework, Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, the Negro family is not willing to take a child as dark as the darker parent. However, she pointed out, this attitude may vary in geographical areas where different cultural patterns exist. The important thing, she felt, was that the child should not feel himself too dissimilar from the adoptive parents. Miss Wildy told, also, about discussion in this agency regarding acceptance of applications from parents over the age of forty. Though in the past this has generally not been thought to be good practice, the extending of the period of life expectancy has removed some of the objections. The agency staff finally concluded that it was best to move ahead on the basis of "total evaluation of the family."

The home study in adoptive placement as a "dynamic, changing, moving enterprise" was discussed on a program of the casework section by Marion B. Nicholson, Director, Los Angeles branch, Los Angeles Children's Home Society. Much of this process, she explained, is aimed at protecting the child from later rejection. Adoptive parents who, in the face of problem behavior, remind the child that he should be grateful to them, or who hark back to the weaknesses of his natural parents, "have not come to terms with the fact that they deliberately chose to accept into their families children born to other parents." The home study, among other things, helps couples see that the coming of the child involves establishment of a new relationship between the parents, something most applicants are not aware of. When they reach the agency, she said, couples have made some adjustment to their inability to have children, have entertained the possibility of adoption, and have gathered together their energies for "the ordeal of requesting a child who may not be given them." The caseworker's first task is to "connect with this on-going process," and to try to "enhance it, stimulate it, enlarge it to include the agency, the worker, and a possible child."

An interesting paper presented at a meeting of the Child Welfare League, by Hazel S. Morrison, General Secretary, Boston Children's Friend Society, described a follow-up study of thirty-three adopted

children. The children had been adopted into eighteen families, where parents were between thirty and forty years of age at time of placement. The usual home study had been made, and there had been a year's supervision before adoption. At the time of the study the children were from eight to twenty-two years of age. Information was based on the parents' judgment and was obtained by interview, except in two cases, in which the family lived too far away and information was secured by correspondence.

The families proved to have been a stable group; there had been no divorces and no unemployment during the intervening period. Two adoptive mothers had died. All the children had been healthy at time of adoption, but two had developed serious health problems. Eighteen children had presented no serious behavior problems, but six parents were dissatisfied, feeling doubtful about the child's adjustment, because of such problems as enuresis, school difficulties, general hostility. One child seemed to the worker to be likely to be a permanent problem. It was observed that the children who were presenting problems had been older (two of age and over) at the time of placement than the rest of the group. More of the parents who had had college education reported school problems among their adopted children than did the parents who had had high school education or less. None of the latter group reported school difficulties with their children. All but one of these children had been told of their adoption between the ages of two and four, and all parents agreed that it was desirable for them to know as early as possible. All said too that their children responded well to the idea that they had been "chosen."

Particularly interesting to social workers dealing with adoption was a pair of papers presented at a meeting arranged by the Planned Parenthood Federation of America on the subject of infertility and its relation to adoption. Clinical experience at the Yale University School of Medicine reveals that in 40 percent of their cases of childless couples the man was "the responsible agent," reported Dr. Milton S. Godfried, Assistant Clinical Professor of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Yale University School of Medicine. Dr. Godfried said that the changing attitude of physicians toward proper investigation of the male, rather than assuming, as has been traditional, that the

woman is barren, has "resulted in important additions to our knowledge of this problem." He emphasized the need for special clinics to give attention to infertility and for more widespread education on the fact that in many cases something can be done about childlessness, and quoted figures on attendance at the Yale clinic to show that as the service became better known, it was increasingly sought out by couples who had given up the possibility of having children. Describing the type and scope of examination and treatment used at the clinic, Dr. Godfried discussed typical psychological factors relating to these childless marriage partners, and said he had found social workers in the adoption field "extremely competent to uncover many such significant emotional factors which may not come forth in the patient-physician relationship."

Speaking on the same program, Verne Weed, Supervisor, Adoption Department, Children's Village, Connecticut Children's Aid Society, said that workers in this field had come to know that "the knowledge that one is sterile is one of the most painful experiences a human being can face," and that until he has faced it and come to terms with it, he "is not ready to take on an adopted child." Many couples who come to an adoption agency still have doubts and hesitations which spring from this struggle, though it is widely assumed that every applicant is eager and anxious to adopt a child. The necessity for adoptive parents to settle this problem for themselves, so that they will not in the future be likely to reject the child because they were not "ready" for him, is one of the causes of the "slowness" of which adoption agencies are accused. The speaker discussed, too, factors which are believed to be at work in the situation where the adoptive mother becomes pregnant after applying to adopt a child or even after a child has been placed in her home. There is some ground for believing that coming to a decision to adopt or being found acceptable as adoptive parents by an agency, or possibly both, may have a relaxing effect on one or both partners, so that conception becomes possible. "As our skills have developed," said the speaker, "and as we have put more thought into the wait, both before a home study and after approval, the number of pregnancies has increased during this period prior to placement and correspondingly decreased following placement of the child."

A session of the Committee on Services to Unmarried Parents was devoted to the unmarried mother and the unadoptable child. Almeda R. Jolowicz, Supervisor of Training, Department of Public Welfare, Mineola, New York, said that in that agency, which serves Nassau County, there are four groups of unadoptable children: those who are not legally free for adoption; those who have "gross physical defects or in whose development there is a combination of questionable factors"; Negro children; and children who were once adoptable but who have become unadoptable because they or their mothers did not have the right kind of service at the appropriate time. Although the department is able to administer its own adoption program, it has found that the number of children for whom adoption can be planned is small in proportion to the total number of children under care, for "by far the greater number of children have legal and emotional ties to their own parents which cannot be severed." One of the greatest problems an agency faces in caring for the unadoptable child, said this speaker, is "providing boarding care that offers permanency rather than replacements, and security, in the face of the child's knowledge that he belongs neither to the foster parents nor to his own parents."

We condemn children to unadoptability by not working fast enough when they are most adoptable, declared Trude Lash, Program Director of New York City's Citizen's Committee for Children. Acknowledging that there are hopeful developments in increasing placement of handicapped children, older children, children of mixed racial backgrounds, and Negro children—all of whom might have been found unadoptable at one time—Mrs. Lash said that nevertheless too many children were still sent "on an endless trek from foster home to foster home" or subjected to situations in which they become too unstable for adoption. Relating this neglect to the shortage of skilled casework staffs in adoption agencies, she said it is the duty of those who know about such unfilled needs to tell the community about it, and it is the community's responsibility to establish enough services. Private agencies, she said, cannot do the job alone, and in most states, counties, and localities, public adoption services have been established as part of comprehensive child-caring programs. However, she reported, in New York City

no such program exists or is being planned, although "private adoption agencies, in spite of great efforts, cannot and will never be able to take care of all children who need their care."

A plea for a "program that will make it possible for us to study a child just as he is, without any labels, and give him the service he needs" was made at the dinner meeting of the National Child Labor Committee, by Charlotte Carr, Director of the Citizen's Committee on Children of New York City. Her city spends \$1,500,000 a year on the Bureau of Attendance, reported Miss Carr, "but we still do not know the truant, for we study attendance rather than non-attendance." Further, the percentage of cases referred from this bureau to the Bureau of Child Guidance in the educational system is very small, and, said Miss Carr, "it is just as important for the chronic truant to have this service as it is for the aggressive, rock-throwing child." Experience has shown that "if you devote time and attention to truants and potential delinquents, you can do something for them," agreed William D. Wilkins, Associate Professor of Education, New York University, who appeared on the same program. Mr. Wilkins reported on a study of early school leavers which showed that some children leave because their comparatively lower socioeconomic group is rejected by teachers and other children who are in higher groups. Sixty percent of the group studied, all of them out of school, had I.Q.'s below 95, but 20 percent rated above 95, showing that they could have done high school work. Mr. Wilkins felt there was some connection between lack of vocational guidance in schools and the fact that the major delinquency is found in the sixteen- to nineteen-year-old group. However, he added, delinquency begins as early as the age of six, and "if we are going to do anything realistic about delinquency and early school leaving, we must identify the problems early."

Schools now recognize that the services of the psychologist, physician, social worker, and others are needed to help attain educational objectives for young students, said Jane Wille, Supervisor, Home and School Visitors, Pittsburgh Board of Public Education. Speaking at a group meeting of the casework section, Miss Wille said that school social work services are enlisted to help children who seem unable to accept authority, who cannot get along with classmates,

who are playing truant, or who are failing without obvious cause. The school social worker's first contact is generally with the teacher, she said, for one must "recognize the importance of the teacher-child relationship" and the important role this will play in effecting change in the situation. Children's problems often arise, of course, from social, economic, and personal difficulties in the home. With some help, parents may be able to solve these problems themselves. Again, they may require the services of a community agency. Miss Wille emphasized the fact that professional casework in the school setting is "a service designed to facilitate the attainment of educational objectives."

A sheaf of Conference papers described the ways in which clergymen, teachers, and nurses as well as social workers could help people in trouble. On a program of the section on mental health, Seward Hiltner, Department of Pastoral Service, Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, discussed the "clergyman as counselor." In the mid-twenties, the clergyman's main interest was in understanding the patient, said Mr. Hiltner; in the mid-thirties the emphasis moved to understanding method. Today, he stated, the trend is toward a synthesis of the two. Acknowledging the debt of the clergy in this area to psychiatry and social work, the speaker made it clear he felt they had not been mere "borrowers," but "have learned more about what is distinctive in pastoral counseling in our study of life sciences." The dynamic knowledge of life process brings together many professions, he added, and cannot be claimed as the exclusive possession of any profession. People seek out pastoral counseling in connection with the natural life crises, and also bring their particular concerns in relation to their problems of relationships with others, as well as their problems of "ultimate meaning or destiny."

In a meeting of the section on delinquency, Dr. Aloysius Church, administrative psychiatrist for the Detroit public schools, made a case for the public school teacher as the "greatest unused agent for nipping mental disease in the bud, that we now have." The effects of those interpersonal relationships from which psychoses stem are observable early in life, said Dr. Church. He pointed out that the child in school is observed in relation to a group, and is observed

more objectively than at home; that schools offer the added information about the child's learning capacity; that the school child's ability to verbalize assists workers in evaluation of the mental content and specific attitudes; and finally, that one may see in the school the comfortable or uncomfortable reaction to the child's separation from the mother. Study of over twenty-four hundred pupils in the Detroit school system referred to the psychological clinic points to the school as a mental hygiene agency and to the teacher as a dynamic person in the child's life, Dr. Church reported.

Provisions of the National Mental Health Act have stimulated qualified nurses to prepare to act as consultants in mental hygiene in the public health field, reported Katherine Brownell Oettinger, Mental Hygiene Consultant, Scranton (Pennsylvania) Visiting Nurse Association, to the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers. Because of the public health nurse's close contact with families at important stages of growth and development, she can, with the help of supervisor and mental hygiene consultant, be of great help in "allaying stresses and strains to permit healthy emotional climate for the growth of the young child, orienting their service to the family in traditional home visits [the nurse is one of the few welfare workers who still visits the home, pointed out the speaker], and interpreting other agencies to individuals, ignorant or reluctant to seek service." The speaker gave a persuasive description of situations such as care of newborn baby and newly delivered mother, to illustrate her point that understanding dynamics of human behavior is basic, not only to maximum help of the patient, but to the nurse's self-understanding. Trends in nursing care, she reported, have paralleled comparable developments in social work or clinical psychology so that "it would be as outmoded to think of the nurse as almost exclusively preoccupied with prescribed physical care of a sick person as it would be to think of the social worker devoted solely to the distribution of financial aid."

II. SERVICES TO GROUPS AND INDIVIDUALS IN GROUPS

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS of research in group dynamics and the implications of these developments for relations with which social group workers and community organizers are concerned was the subject of the opening session of the section on social group work. Here Leon Festinger, Program Director of the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan, discussed current developments in group dynamics, and Grace Coyle, Professor of Social Group Work at Western Reserve's School of Applied Social Sciences, related research in group dynamics to the practice of social group work.

The goals of Michigan's Research Center, reported Mr. Festinger, are to develop "a core of scientific data and theory in the area of group behavior" and to encourage and aid in "the application of this scientific knowledge to help solve the practical problems of the social practitioner." He made clear to his audience that the field is still in its infancy and the findings must be considered "only the beginnings of an exact science." He reported on several studies, one of which indicated that prestige is given to certain individuals within groups on the basis of volume of activity rather than effectiveness of activity. Another study showed that bringing together people who have hostile attitudes toward each other will not necessarily reduce the hostility and eradicate misunderstandings, but in some instances may actually increase the difficulty. Experiments with several groups of varying degrees of "cohesiveness," Mr. Festinger reported, showed that once pressures toward uniformity begin operating within a group, three concurrent processes develop: attempts to influence those whose opinions are different from one's own; a readiness to be changed by others in the group; and a tendency to reject those whose opinions are different from one's own. Mr. Festinger emphasized the need for more extensive research in this field, and urged effective cooperation between researchers and practitioners so that application of the data could be made practicable.

The term "group dynamics" is being used in many quarters and with many connotations, said Miss Coyle. The use of role-playing or other techniques associated with the term is sometimes erroneously referred to as "doing group dynamics." Again it seems sometimes to have become a "cause" or movement related to promotion of certain approaches to group relations. Its precise meaning, however, is that "the group process is a dynamic one which can be studied by scientific methods." The problem of application of research in this area by practitioners involves "channels of communication between researchers and practitioners" and also "the ability by practitioners to evaluate in their own terms the results of research." It requires also the ability to "turn the generalizations of science into the specifics of the practitioner."

Of prime importance to the social worker are those areas of research dealing with individual growth and behavior, with the dynamics of the group process, and with the process of community life and culture, declared Miss Coyle, emphasizing that social work needs to draw simultaneously upon all three and combine the approaches. She felt that it would be helpful to "try to avoid creating schools of thought by collecting as followers around new theories of innovators or loyalties to the status quo," for this "diverts attention from the free and individualistic search for truth."

Though the researcher necessarily remains neutral so far as values are concerned, the practitioner's purposes in using the increasing knowledge about group behavior and about the means of changing group behavior becomes more and more important, Miss Coyle told her audience:

Such knowledge is power. Is it to be used to control or to manipulate groups for certain ends? . . . Good intentions without knowledge end in futility. Scientific knowledge applied in social practice without the guidance of social aims and effective professional ethics is not only futile; it is dangerous. We must find a way to relate them in fruitful union.

The spotlight focused on the question of groupings at another session of the social group work section. Three papers describing "grouping devices for intercultural goals" were presented, followed by a series of five discussion groups which covered friendship and interest groups of teen-agers, adults, and children; intergroup coun-

cils; and athletic competition. At the General Session opening this program on groupings, William Brueckner, Executive Director, Chicago Commons, discussed self-initiated groupings. Describing the experience of his agency, which works in the midst of a tense community situation, Mr. Brueckner said that one of the best links to the natural grouping in the community had been found to be the friendship group, although he felt this must be supplemented by interest groups, committees, classes, councils, and other opportunities for play and work on matters of common interest. These groups are particularly important to adolescents, he said, who come into this neighborhood agency for the most part in homogeneous groups rather than as individuals. He pointed up the dilemma of the social group worker in an agency where the objective of furthering intercultural understanding is not at all the reason which attracts groups to come in. They come "for a good time" and "do not want to be group-worked." However, in the friendship group, the individual "has a strong and hardly replaceable reference to what he likes, believes in, knows," and this is something from which he can "depart into the new likings, beliefs, knowledge, and skill at his own speed." The most important aspect of this kind of grouping, said the speaker, is that the adolescent can feel that "this group is one he made with his friends, and it was not made by someone else."

Speaking on the same program, Russell Hogrefe, Research Associate, Commission on Community Interrelations of the American Jewish Congress, gave the results of a survey of the judgments of about thirty group workers having extensive experience in intercultural, interracial social group work practice, on the question of sound practice in groupings. Somewhat more than half the interviewees favored the use of small groups, chiefly because these allow closer acquaintance with others in the group and closer contact between the leader and group members. Others cited the advantages of the complementary function of large and small groups, pointing out that the large group was a way of establishing first contact, a way of bringing people together for recruiting small mixed groups, and a place for testing out attitudes acquired in small groups.

Most of the workers in the survey felt that new members coming into an agency with culturally heterogeneous membership should

start out in activity groups. They noted that this took advantage of such factors as the interest of individuals to bring them into mixed groups, and flexibility in the amount of person-to-person interaction which is required. A few suggested that new members should start in club groups because of the greater personal security offered.

On the question as to how such groups should be initiated, half of these workers cited advantages of agency-initiated groups; one quarter believed that the starting point for intercultural interracial contacts should be the bringing together of two homogeneous groups, each from a different background. Mixed groups will emerge, they said, where frequent and enjoyable experiences are had by such combining process. The remainder of the group interviewed thought that the situation should define the kind of group operation which will be most productive.

At a joint session of the casework, child care, social group work, and health sessions, where the topic of the day concerned casework as part of a service to children in a social group work setting, work with the individual as part of social group work was discussed by Gertrude Wilson, Professor of Social Group Work, School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh. Helping the individual is an integral part of the professional social group worker's skill, said Miss Wilson, and the structure of most agencies using the social group work method reveals recognition of this. Sometimes there is conflict between the needs of an individual and the welfare of the group as a whole. Here the worker must let the individual know she understands but does not identify against the group. In other situations, such as intake, a worker must decide whether an individual is struggling with a "group-related problem" or with personal problems with which he must be helped by another agency. "It is the function of the social group worker," said Miss Wilson, "to help group members recognize the nature of the problems which are blocking creative use of their group experience."

At another meeting of the section, Miss Wilson gave a paper on social group work in a medical setting. The conscious use of groups as part of a treatment plan is based on the fact of "the stark need of human beings for relationship with other human beings," as well as the idea that the anxiety of patients in relation to recovery is re-

lated primarily to fear of loss of ability for association with others in personal and economic life. "Substitute group associations" during institutional confinement can provide reassurance to patients of their skill in interpersonal relations, opportunity to give support to fellow patients having similar difficulties, mutual stimulation and encouragement in retraining processes, preparation for adjustment to life after recovery or, if such is the case, to life with a chronic illness or handicap. Though in treatment plans a patient does not have the wide choice he has as a well person in the community, once in a group, he has a wide range of choice in type of participation. Miss Wilson pointed out that it was important that groups be composed of individuals who have a fair chance of working together effectively.

Individuals want to feel comfortable with others, she said, but they become bored unless there is "some conflict"; thus a group must be sufficiently homogeneous for comfort and heterogeneous for interest. It has been her observation that attendance of less than four or five in a group discourages those who come, but attendance of more than twelve or fifteen depersonalizes the group in this setting.

A panel of discussants who followed Miss Wilson on the program included Claire R. Lustman, chief social worker, Veterans Administration Hospital, Aspinwall, Pennsylvania, who said that social group work "brings to the hospital's battery of services another instrument for realizing total objectives of hospitalization." Among the examples from this speaker's experience, showing the beneficial effects of social group work in a VA hospital, she mentioned the fact that "patients encountering difficulty in following medical recommendations and adapting to agency restrictions have found in their social groups a means of readjusting their perspective and reactions towards a more acceptable base."

Another discussant, Mary Ellen Hubbard, of the American Red Cross Eastern Area's service in military hospitals, gave illustrations from her experience showing how social group work services in the military hospital can have a beneficial effect in a short time. The first example, which covered a period of about ten days, was noted by caseworker and doctor with whom the social group worker co-operated as bringing about "a quick change in the patient's attitude,

and a good deal more cooperation in treatment plans." Social patterns develop on the ward, said this speaker, and "with these patterns are created new systems of values and controls." This is the raw material with which the social group worker can work to bring about "positive values for the benefit of the patient."

Speaking on the same program, Raymond Fisher, Assistant Professor of Social Group Work at Western Reserve University's School of Applied Social Sciences, described a group situation in a convalescent hospital for crippled children, where a group of adolescent boys were in need of sex education as well as an opportunity to bring out their anxiety in this area. A series of "bull sessions" initiated by the social group worker brought out the main questions, some of which the doctor was able to help clear up, and led to expression of their feelings about the restrictions of hospital life. The group process was used here, said Mr. Fisher, "as a mobilizing factor in helping patients look upon the hospital in a more constructive way and to get satisfactions from group experience which would be conducive rather than harmful to recovery."

Another session was devoted to social group work in children's institutions, in recognition of the growing concern in social group work program being shown by child welfare workers as well as social group workers in this setting. The therapeutic values of group experience in a children's institution were discussed by Dr. J. Franklin Robinson, Director, Children's Service Center of Wyoming Valley, Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania. Dr. Robinson said he had become a "group-oriented" psychiatrist, as it were, because, as a child psychiatrist, he had become so convinced of the therapeutic potentialities for children in group experience. Speaking on the same program, Netta Berman, Group Work Supervisor, Cleveland Jewish Children's Home, described the variety and kinds of group experience needed by children in institutions. She made the point that social group workers are an essential part of the staff team in an institution, and recognizing the shortage of such workers, said she thought those who were available for jobs in institutions should concentrate on working with a few special groups, doing general programming, and helping give in-service training to house parents.

On a program on work with displaced persons sponsored by the

casework section, Beatrice Carter, Casework Director, Jewish Family and Children's Service, Boston, gave a vivid picture of work with adolescent D.P.'s in a group situation. The Boston plan, which involves camp experience in Maine with the program centered around the teaching of English, places emphasis on psychological growth in an effort to "liberate the repressed springs of life." The reliving of traumatic experiences through group activities is an important tool in this endeavor. The speaker said that individual relations were deliberately avoided and that teaching and group activity proved to be the curative agents. Group life becomes the "steppingstone to the character development of the child," she said. Because of a high incidence of nightmares among the youngsters, an effort was made to encourage the transmitting of dreams into words as part of English class assignments. It was found that this was not only a sublimation for the child, but that "what had been a nightmare was transformed into achievement" within the class setting.

An examination of services being rendered through social group work in education for family life was the theme of the opening session of the American Association of Group Workers. Paul A. Simon, professor, Division of Social Welfare Administration, University of Illinois, said that though the family is a primary basic unit, there has been a tendency to overlook the fact that the individuals within the family are at the same time members of outside groups which have a "possibly even greater influence" upon them. Mr. Simon said that the social work job is to help the individual "function more adequately in the free space of social movement." Problems begin to arise for the individual, he said, when he begins to "act outside the family group," and, at least for the young person, the family is "the point of reference from which he moves in social space." Much can be done to help the family utilize its own resources to regain balance in interpersonal relationships, and here casework and the social group work job can supplement each other.

The big problem in helping adolescents is to help them understand and accept adults, said Mary Lee Nicholson, Executive Director and Group Work Supervisor, Detroit Group Project. Especial understanding is needed for adults who are restrictive and punitive or those who are lax. Miss Nicholson presented a record of work

with a group of adolescent girls each of whom was referred as a special problem, in which education for family life was a means of drawing group members together. Some goals of the worker in this case, she pointed out, were to give the girls a "chance to complain about things without incurring a lecture about loving your parents," to help them discover what satisfactions adult life could offer, and to give them opportunities to gain wider experience, as well as help in getting along with parents and others.

A record of work with a group of young adult parents was reviewed by Helen Northen, Research Assistant, Department of Social Economy, Bryn Mawr College. Over a period of a year this group of fourteen young married women, who organized "to have some life of our own," progressed from a purely social group to a series of discussions of problems of children, in-laws, mixed marriages, and, later, gradually came to "see the implications of their concerns to general community problems, such as housing, and so on." It was concluded that this group experience had had a stabilizing influence on members and that specific help had been rendered by the social group worker both to individuals and to the group as a whole.

"Like a family," said Mary K. Simkhovitch, of New York City's Greenwich House, addressing a meeting of the National Federation of Settlements and Neighborhood Centers, "the settlement is a group responsive to its environment and working from a permanent base." Mrs. Simkhovitch went on to say that the settlement is "a unit of democracy where racial origin, creed, and income are of common concern and where the dignity of the individual is the measure of progress." As a center for institutional activity, she thought, the settlement would tend to disappear, but "as a fertilizing center, it will always be needed." Its aim, she said, is "to fertilize the principal movements of national concern by fresh life from the neighborhood where legislation can be tested, where life is lived for good or evil by the majority of mankind, where wants are witnessed and need proclaimed."

Speaking on the same program, William A. Kirk, headworker of Union Settlement, New York City, stressed the pragmatic approach

of the settlement and the "sense of humor of its workers which keeps them from making any program and end in itself." In speaking of postwar adjustment and inflation, Mr. Kirk stressed the need for new support, some of it from the neighborhood, though in poorer neighborhoods this is decidedly limited. Many new ventures in this program, he observed, were cooperative ones, such as those which involve government in child care, old age, housing, and work with youth.

At a session of the social group work section devoted to programs designed to enrich the lives of older people, Arthur M. Goldman, Executive Director, Neighborhood House, Portland, Oregon, reviewed two years of experience in development of a "golden age club" in his agency. The group meets regularly each week from noon until five o'clock, and includes in its program a business meeting, a special program, and a series of small group recreational activities. Monthly birthday parties are a regular feature, and all holidays are celebrated. Whereas the worker is a parent substitute with children's groups, in this situation he is often a "child substitute," said Mr. Goldman. Chief benefits of the program are to give lonely people the opportunity to make friends, create opportunities for people to do things themselves through activities which they themselves plan, and to give people who are not working a chance to enjoy constructive leisure-time activities. Now the staff is beginning to wonder what other needs should be met through the program, and how this can be done in light of the limited budget and inadequate number of staff, he concluded.

On a particularly unique program of the section on delinquency, two young men described the efforts of themselves and their "gangs" to help each other within the group to meet and solve the problems which confront the high school graduate, especially before he is able to establish himself in the work world. Said "Red" Sullivan, of Chicago, "the young American worker hangs around with about three or four, maybe more, other guys his own age, who do the same things together." Being used to functioning as a team, "what is more natural for them than to unite to solve problems that are common to them and the guys they go around with?" Mr. Sullivan

said from his experience that "various mobs" are willing to work together through their leaders. He described how his organization had been able to form teams of young leaders to work on problems connected with home, work, and recreation—the three important parts of life. An organized free method of helping unemployed gang members get jobs, as well as organizing basketball leagues, boxing bouts, and dances, are among specific activities which have resulted. The biggest point is that "the young guys themselves are setting up the services and running them," said this young speaker.

The average gang is a closed corporation, said Jim Nelson, of New York City. "They clamp up on outsiders and want no part of reformers," he added. Mr. Nelson described his experience and efforts in his own gang as part of the Gang Leader Project of the Youth Counseling Service of the Archdiocese of New York. These leaders, he said, came to the realization that they "could help their gang and themselves if they tried." It was his opinion that boys who "go off the deep end" and get into serious trouble do so because they "feel nobody cares about them" and that if they have a place in the world through their gang and their fellow members take a real interest in their daily lives, attitudes change and a steady effect is noticed.

At another meeting of the section on delinquency Dorothy B. Fleming, area worker for the Central Harlem Street Clubs Project, sponsored by the Welfare Council of New York City, described the Project's experience of introducing a woman worker to gain the confidence of the girl associates of members of street gangs whose antisocial attitudes were expressed in destructive activities. It was found that the girls, who were sisters and friends of the members of one of the more aggressive street clubs, had few interests and participated rarely in any kind of recreational or constructive social activity. However, they proved to be less antisocial than their boy associates, and in the end, efforts to integrate them into a community agency program, a first experience for them, were successful. After eighteen months of contact, changes of attitude were observed, as well as growth of personal security, development of new sets of interests in cultural and recreational activities, more positive relations with adults, and "less idle hanging around the block." The

speaker said that more and better recreational facilities were needed for groups from these depressed areas and that agencies should "prepare themselves to do a more inclusive job."

In a paper on social reeducation of delinquent youth, presented before the National Association of Training Schools, S. R. Slavson, Director of Group Therapy, Jewish Board of Guardians, New York City, said that the motivation for change in children in activity group therapy "springs from their desire to be accepted by the group—a desire that we designate as 'social hunger.'" Not only are cottage groups temporary, fluid, and unstable, he said, but they are artificial and alien to the backgrounds and felt needs of the youngsters; for "sequestration from one's home and neighborhood cannot mean anything but rejection and punishment with accompanying guilt, resentment, and retaliatory impulses." Yet even in this artificial community life, if it follows the dynamic principles of democracy—allowing for freedom, status, participation, and responsibility—genuine reeducation can take place. In a discussion of the basis of groupings in cottages, Mr. Slavson said his experience had shown that both groupings by clinical category and by sociometric study are unsuitable as guides. He emphasized the fact that the most important single corrective was in the discovery and strengthening of the talents of young people and giving them adequate expression in the field in which they are particularly suited, and said that "the sameness in the quality of responsiveness is perhaps the best criterion for grouping people." Activity group therapy where "free acting out" is encouraged cannot be used in industrial schools, he said. However, experiments at Hawthorne-Cedar Knolls School with a group of girls had shown that analytic group psychotherapy or interview group psychotherapy could be used, and in fact, had been able to help girls who had gained little from individual treatment. In some cases, group interviews made individual treatment unnecessary; in others, the girls became more accessible to individual treatment because of the group experience. Mr. Slavson concluded:

It is not possible either to group residents or to create a healthy community by the application of strictly scientific knowledge or criteria. The complexities of the human personality, especially in dynamic in-

teraction with others, transcend our capacity for scientific validation or definition. . . . Sympathy, intuition, justice, flexibility, and kindness are still the only reliable tools in the practice of human relations. . . . In human relations, science is at best a poor substitute for humaneness and inspiration.

On another program of the Association, the question of discipline in the training school was discussed by a group of experienced executives. The goal is to help youngsters gain some sense of value for the welfare of the group, said W. J. Eastbaugh, Superintendent, Training School for Boys, Bowmanville, Ontario, Canada. Discipline begins in the cottage group, he said, and must always be aimed at the successful reestablishment of the youngsters in society. "Coercion, punishment, and retributive measures cannot bring about a lasting change," declared Mr. Eastbaugh. "The development of a constructive aim in life and a change of attitude must come about within the individual." He said he felt that few boys would "withstand the therapeutic effect" of a group atmosphere that is "charged with kindness, politeness, loyalty, enthusiasm, and cooperation."

On the same program, Norman Lourie, Director of Hawthorne-Cedar Knolls School, said that in considering discipline, one must measure each child; those who cannot stand group life, or close relationships, or who cannot tolerate frustration, for instance, must not be "punished or deprived when our own mistake in exposing him to these produces the only defenses he has—aggressiveness, destructiveness, and other forms of unacceptable behavior." Mr. Lourie felt it important to study carefully what group life might mean to different children, and that "the cohesiveness of group living must be maintained so that a mob is not created and so that framework and control, which by themselves are therapeutic, are maintained."

"The protected and impersonal, well-ordered yet flexible, program of a maternity home, coupled with the common bond with girls sharing the same problem" generally assures more security than a boarding home for a girl during pregnancy out of wedlock, said Eleanor Mullen, Executive Secretary, Ingleside Home, Buffalo, in a paper given at a meeting of the Committee on Services to Un-

married Parents. However, she added, both facilities are essentials of any good casework program for unmarried mothers. This speaker felt, too, that the difficult experience for the young woman is made less complicated if all her assistance with problems of housing, medical and hospital care, planning for her own and the baby's future, and so on, can stem from the program of a single agency having its own maternity home, hospital, and foster homes, with the agency caseworker calling upon various community resources, such as child care and family agencies. Miss Mullen, speaking from her own experience, felt that if the caseworker is part of the same staff with the housemother of the maternity home, the nurses, doctors, and social group workers, she can be close to the girl's everyday living, health history, group behavior, in a way that is highly important to a helpful casework job.

Another interesting picture of the way an unhappy individual can be helped to adjust to a group came in a session of the National Association of School Social Workers, when Isabel W. Cromack, visiting teacher in the Austin (Texas) public schools, gave a case illustration from her experience. After three years of hard work and cooperation on the part of the visiting teacher, classroom teachers, principal, special education personnel, and psychological examiner, a thirteen-year-old Mexican boy, suffering from a physical deformity, and presenting extreme behavior symptoms as a result of his greatly impoverished background, has been helped to complete a full year in school in which he showed both social and academic progress. When the record began, at a time when the youngster was called to the attention of the attendance department because of truancy, it had been recommended by the psychometrist that the child be withdrawn from public school because his extreme behavior was too disrupting in the classroom and all usual measures of control had failed. With the visiting teacher acting as a kind of coordinator, needed surgery was obtained for the child, and special education arrangements made for him during a fourteen-month stay in the hospital and a "homebound" period which followed, in which the child lived in a boarding home rather than returning to his own extremely inadequate home. This was a particularly vivid and telling description of a "preventive" job effected by cooperation

of many different skills of social work and education both in the school and in the community, with the center of activity placed at a spot where an upset youngster was having trouble adjusting to that first group met by the child beyond his family—his fellow schoolmates.

Priorities in the practice of social group work were discussed in four concurrent group meetings of the American Association of Group Workers, with discussion based on a paper prepared by an Association committee composed of George Brager, Paul Cressey, Lillian Sharpley, and Sanford Solender.

"For the first time in many years," declared these colleagues, "social group work is face-to-face with a financial situation which if not met in a thoughtful, planful, and courageous manner, presages a slowing down of the development of social group work services in many areas, a decline in the quality of services, or both." Community chest contributions have not enabled informal educational and recreational agencies to expand programs as needed or even to prevent retrenchment in services, they said, and now it appears that in 1949 and 1950 there has been a leveling off in funds raised with something of a downward trend compared with the steady rise of preceding years. Communities are now beset, too, by a multiplicity of new campaigns and appeals which constitute a threat to the "one-campaign-a-year" idea which was the strength of the chest in its earlier years. Further, said this paper, it is regrettable to report that there has developed "considerable rigidity in regard to the financing of new programs and agencies, which is at variance with the community chest's earlier role as a sponsor of promising new community services."

The growing concern of social group work for heightening the level of its practice is reflected in the reaching out for professionally trained staff, and more insistence on sound use of recording, adequate time for supervision, individualized services, more skillful intake and planned approaches to groupings. But such efforts are inevitably accompanied by increased costs of services. At the same time, there are trends in agency development which also mean increased cost of operation, such as the interest in better coverage of all age groups and extension of services to a complete cross section

of the community on the part of education and recreation agencies, and the introduction of social group work into agencies which now recognize the value of these services to special groups, such as the physically handicapped, the mentally ill. "How can the standards of social group work practice be maintained and advanced in the light of present community conditions?" was the question posed.

"Agencies dare not undermine the quality of work being done by such moves as cutting salaries, dropping staff without limiting program, cutting over-all services such as intake, or by limiting supervision," said this paper. Instead, in face of the realistic necessity to curtail budgets, it was recommended that agencies examine the possibility of increased income from membership and other activity payment sources; determine whether further economies in the agency's operations might be effected without impairing service; study the available resources of the agencies to see if they are organized and utilized in the most efficient fashion; and consider whether or not they are making the most effective use of volunteer resources.

Exploring possibilities for securing more adequate financial support, the writers threw out several questions: Are there other sources for funds to which agencies might turn while remaining within the established framework of chest and council policy? Is it not possible under certain circumstances to develop a plan for the use of public funds by voluntary agencies? The means by which social group workers and their agencies can give maximum support to the chest were also explored—working on better methods of "telling the social group work story"; stimulating greater responsibility for activity on behalf of the chest by lay leaders; stimulating and organizing support for the campaign.

Agencies faced with the necessity for establishing priorities in program must consider these principles: Priorities are linked both to agency objectives and to changing community needs. There must be understanding of the role of the public agency, with recognition, if this is called for, that transfer of certain programs to public auspices may prove to be a sound adjustment for a private agency. Priorities should not be set up as a result of an emergency situation and under pressure for speedy action but rather through a plan-

ning group which can incorporate the thinking of all persons concerned, taking the time to do a creative job. Finally, steps taken to modify the program or the structure must be considered in view of the total agency job. Priorities may take the form of listing units of program in order of value, or of recommendations arising out of some new concept or organizational idea. In any case, it is important that lay leadership, professional staff, and membership each play its part in working toward a plan. It is the responsibility of the agency, too, to interpret to the chest and council both the alternatives and choices it is facing, and to the extent it is possible, see that they are involved in the process by which the agency analyzes its problems and reaches decisions.

"Group workers must give their agencies such guidance as will enable them in this period to maintain the improved standards of practice which have been achieved through the years of development of the field . . . and wherever possible, they should be improved and their advance assured." Acknowledging that the volume of agency work may have to be reduced, in the face of insufficient financing, the writers pointed out that social workers often feel great guilt at the necessity for limiting services, but that in this situation "it is essential to find emancipation from this anxiety and to face frankly and courageously the choices which agencies must be helped to make." However, the picture is not entirely discouraging. The voluntary contributions of Americans, while generous, "do not exceed the prosperity of the nation, or the rapidly mounting national income." Moreover, "the habits and attitudes of people with regard to giving can be changed," and there are in almost every community untapped resources for funds. "The choices which are made today must meet the exigencies of these times, yet preserve the progress of the profession and its capacity to render ever more useful community service," they concluded.

In one discussion group, Clyde Murray, Director, Manhattanville Neighborhood Center, New York City, stressed the need for long-time planning when fixing priorities, and cautioned against depending too heavily on having more volunteers; for, said he, "we cannot use more volunteers until we have more supervisors." In the same group, Howard F. Gustafson, Secretary, Recreation-Informal

Education Section, Community Council, Houston, Texas, felt that social group work agencies could be a bit more aggressive in suggesting that participants take more financial responsibility, and reminded that "people in our society today have an attitude that something is worth something if they pay for it." In the following discussion, one participant offered the fact that "around the world the only way things get done" is through volunteers, and that "we have not raised our sights nearly high enough" in thinking about the potentials of volunteers. Another criticized the community chests, saying they had, in many places, ceased to be a "cooperative organization," but the decisions were made by a small group who had just "taken over." The remark evoked a strong concurring response.

In another of these discussion groups, Gladys Ryland, Associate Professor of Group Work, School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, elaborated on the difficulties involved in obtaining greater financial participation from agency membership, making the point that such responsibility grows out of the kind of relationship the member feels toward his own particular group and the organization as a whole. Part of the social group work job is to foster the kind of relatedness that leads to a developing sense of responsibility, she thought.

Part of the difficulty in planning objectively for setting priorities, she observed, lies in the personal needs of professional staff. "We are supposed to be specialists in human relations," she said, "but when will the time arrive when professional staff members will all be such mature individuals that our personal needs do not distort our professional relationships?" The steps involved in an agency's determining priorities, she suggested, are to examine the responsibilities to the membership, evaluate the services of other agencies in meeting these specific needs, formulate the unmet needs, and select from these the needs which can be met within the budget and facility limitations of the agency.

III. SERVICES TO AGENCIES AND COMMUNITIES

THE PROCESS of community organization in the community welfare field was discussed at a session of the American Association of Schools of Social Work by Mildred Barry, Lecturer in Community Organization at Western Reserve's School of Applied Social Sciences. Describing the steps in the process, Mrs. Barry emphasized that "the representative nature of the community welfare agency and its committees is of the greatest importance." By means of a hypothetical example, she showed the process at work in a council of social agencies meeting, bringing out strongly what she called "the three-dimensional character of process"—the sequence of events, the interplay of personalities, and the conscious activity of the community organization worker. The worker uses the same basic body of knowledge and skills as other social workers, she said, developing his specialty from this foundation. He sees the community organization process as "the exciting, living, turbulent organism within the bones and sinews of community structure."

Though community welfare councils are autonomous, and thus not subject to national standards, there is great demand for some method of self-appraisal, said Merrill Krughoff, Director of the Health and Welfare Planning Department, Community Chests and Councils of America, opening a session of the community organization and planning section. Three papers on criteria of effective structure and operation of a council were presented. John B. Dawson, Executive Director of Philadelphia's Health and Welfare Council, in discussing a self-appraisal form developed by Community Chests and Councils, said it was a cooperative attempt by many councils to find the means of measuring good performance. In forty years, he said, more than four hundred community councils have been organized. The present time is a most important one for a council "to be able to say clearly how it thinks it has functioned," said Mr. Dawson, commenting on the tremendous growth of tax funds and the consequent changing pattern of financing, the stabilization of chest money-raising and the resulting need for careful

planning of economies, and the "current epidemic to merge chests and councils." The latter trend he seemed to feel was of doubtful value, for it means that chests, which provide less than 6 percent of the money for health and welfare expenditures, would control the medium through which planning is also done by government and nonchest voluntary agencies, money for whose expenditures comes from other sources. He pointed out that the two are organized for different purposes and stressed that "the council must be able to act for itself and not be a tail for the chest kite."

A group experiment in the use of the Community Chest and Council self-appraisal form was described by Eleanor S. Washburn, Executive Secretary of the Massachusetts Community Organization Service. Sixteen local welfare councils cooperated in the experiment, agreeing that the form was simple enough for general use and that the standards on which the form is based were sound. It was her opinion that councils should avoid an artificial time limit in making the self-appraisal, and that the full use of committee process should be made. She also commented that too much must not be expected of such a self-appraisal since there are several "road blocks." Not the least of these is the chest-council relationship, for often chest boards "throttle" council development because they are "unwilling to add agencies and services which will have to be supported." She supported Mr. Dawson's position about merger, saying that where the same man is the executive of both chest and council, he is "caught in a squeeze and the council job becomes a six-months operation."

James W. Fogarty, Executive Secretary of the Greensboro (North Carolina) Council of Social Agencies, discussed the findings of the Blue Ridge Institute on council self-appraisal. As presently designed, he said, the Community Chest and Council form does not lend itself to use for measuring the effectiveness of a council, for though it measures structure and program, it does not measure results. He reported that the 100 Southern social work leaders who met at Blue Ridge in 1949 believed that, in general, social planning had not been effectually related to public and private financing of social work, that councils had failed to achieve recognition of the community social planning agencies because of close identification

with chests, and that community councils must develop greater awareness of the place of public agencies and public financing in total community program. He stated that certain developments regarding councils "should be carefully studied by serious students of community organization," and referred to controversies which had emerged in a number of cities where federated fund-raising agencies had attempted to seize control of effective independent social planning agencies, where mergers had resulted in lost identity for the council, or where the chest had seemed disposed to "divest the council of essential functions for reasons of economy or expedience."

At another session of the community organization section, a six-man panel made an appraisal of the methods, costs, and results of community surveys. As chairman of the panel, C. F. McNeil, Director of Ohio State University's School of Social Administration, posed the question as to how one determines when a community is ready for a survey and which type of survey is the most appropriate.

"We believe a community is ready for a survey," said Arch Mandel, Associate Executive Director, Community Chests and Councils of America, "when more than just a few want it, when those who are tied up with health and welfare services want it, and when the community is asking for it, and knows why it is needed." He added that there must also be "more than acquiescence on the part of agencies."

To insure the success of a survey, said Ralph H. Smith, Executive Director, Albany (New York) Community Chest, the community must be adequately prepared, and the purpose of the survey "spelled out." The community must be prepared to "face the facts" brought out by the survey, he said.

Is it democratic for the board to name the survey committee? Robert P. Lane, consultant to the board of directors, Community Chest of Allegheny County, Pittsburgh, said that the survey committee must be acceptable to all participating agencies, but that "the method of selection of the committee is not so important as its make-up." The committee is responsible for selecting a director, said Mr. Lane, but should "keep hands off" when it comes to the rest of the staff, and has little to do with "the technical conduct of

the survey." He suggested that when committee and staff differ about survey recommendations, a supplementary report should be written and circulated.

The survey should be considered a "tool of community planning and a method of self-education," said Sydney Markey, Director of the Milwaukee County survey. He said the survey, which was sponsored by an independently incorporated group of 120 citizens and covered forty-five agencies at a cost of \$100,000, had resulted in 450 recommendations, of which 10 percent had been accomplished, 8 percent were "in the mill," and 10 percent were "on the shelf." Unless results are translated into action, he stressed, the survey is "wasted effort."

Harry M. Carey, Executive Director, United Community Services of Metropolitan Boston, said the time required for carrying out survey recommendations varies greatly, for some may take from five to ten years. He gave facts and figures on the Boston survey and commented that certain intangible results, such as "changes in attitude," were just as important as concrete results.

It is important that the process of chest budgeting be carried on in "an atmosphere of good faith," declared Linn Brandenburg, Associate Executive Director, Community Fund of Chicago. Acknowledging that a basic "tension between the chests that raise the money and the agencies that spend it" is probably inevitable, Mrs. Brandenburg deplored the "negative and cautious terms in which policies and principles are couched," saying that it seemed sometimes "almost as if we were afraid of showing mutual confidence between chest and agencies by the use of affirmatives." Agencies would probably always need more than the chest has, she said, but chests must be careful not to assume that they understand agency problems and must take steps to make sure that they really do. She recommended as a helpful measure the formulation in writing of what is expected from both agency and chest in the budgeting procedure, and the establishment of regular procedures in agency budgeting. In discussing the trouble areas in administration of budgets, she said that flexibility was desirable but should not be allowed to become "a cover-up for sloppiness." Mrs. Brandenburg concluded her paper with a plea for mutual confidence between agency and chest. "Hu-

man needs in communities are mounting," she said, "and the difficulty of securing money appears aggravated." These two factors make it more essential than ever that those who care about what happens to people in need, trust each other and work together in an atmosphere of good faith.

The community organization role of the operating agencies was discussed at a meeting of the Association for the Study of Community Organization, by Ray Johns, General Secretary, Boston Young Men's Christian Association. No one has a corner on community organization for social welfare services, said Mr. Johns, for actually this is "everybody's business." Using the six functions of community organization as defined by Arthur Dunham—fact-finding; program development; establishment and improvement of standards; coordinating and facilitating intergroup relationships; education and public relations; and enlistment of adequate public support and participation—Mr. Johns developed the operating agency's responsibility for each, within the community framework. Noting "considerable restlessness" and "serious tensions" between operating agencies and interagency organizations, the speaker called for "a more fundamental understanding of the nature of cooperative relationships," for "greater skill in developing effective but democratic relationships," and for planning on the basis of "pertinent, reliable facts."

The role of the family agency in a community program was outlined by A. A. Heckman, Executive Secretary, Family Service of St. Paul, Minnesota, at a session of the Family Service Association of America. Findings of the St. Paul project carried out by Community Research Associates, Inc., and involving scrutiny of the network of services rendered St. Paul families, indicates that "adequate resources for complete diagnosis and treatment of the entire family situation are essential if we are to have a successful community plan for treating problems of maladjustment and behavior disorders," reported the speaker. The study also shows that "well-planned procedures for selecting out of the load of the public welfare agency the families with mental, emotional, and behavior disorders" is also needed, and that a method for early identification and referral of

such difficulties within families must be worked out. In general, the implication of the data is for "a concept of family-centered diagnosis and treatment dominating the picture of our community's treatment services," said Mr. Heckman. This means a "major overhauling" of the family agency and a new alignment of agencies in terms of functions, structural organization, and working relationship, he said.

The significance to community planning of the family unit report which was devised for use in carrying out the St. Paul project was discussed on a program of the Social Work Research Group by Charles J. Birt, Executive Director of the Greater St. Paul Community Chest and Council. As Mr. Heckman had emphasized, Mr. Birt brought out the fact that the study results "sharpen the demand for a family-centered approach to health and social problems by communities." Further, he said, they indicate a need for "a more meaningful reporting system" which will, while showing problems and services to families, lend itself to the measurement of needs and results of present programs.

A report on an analysis of social agency practices in safeguarding information, made by the Washington (D.C.) chapter of the American Association of Social Workers, was given in a meeting of the C.C.C.'s Committee on Social Service Exchange, by Irmgard W. Taylor, welfare services specialist in the Social Security Administration's Bureau of Public Assistance. Miss Taylor said that the continuation of social service exchange clearance is being challenged because social agencies find it impossible to abide strictly by their actual or implied promise to their clients to treat information about them confidentially. The analysis revealed that the client's permission is not secured in many instances of interagency consultation and use of the exchange. Giving records or specific information to another agency without permission of the client concerned is "authoritative" and "incompatible with the knowledge and experience that full participation by the client is essential in the helping relationship," she added. If the difficulty of making the purpose of the exchange intelligible to clients cannot be surmounted, concluded Miss Taylor, "caseworkers must face the question of

whether the exchange really serves vital interests of the individual and of the community so well that the expediency of its use justifies the disregard of professional and democratic principles."

A sheaf of Conference papers described the organization of the community for action in particular fields—health, recreation, support of public welfare, prevention of delinquency, and so on.

At a group meeting sponsored jointly by the sections on community organization and planning and on health, Alexander Ropchan, Executive Secretary, Health Division, Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago, discussed community planning for health. Pointing out that this is being done under a variety of auspices, he said that in the community health council or the health division of a community welfare council there are two types of planning activities—one involving agreement among operating agencies, and the other involving broad citizen understanding and participation. He emphasized the importance of full consideration of all points of view as well as decision by democratic action, and said that the "potentials of dynamic leadership and the motivation for a better community exist in every community."

Speaking on the same program, Dr. George James, Assistant Director, Bureau of Epidemiology and Communicable Disease Control, New York State Department of Health, looked at the community organization effort from the point of view of health department planning. One community agency cannot develop too rapidly at the expense of other important local groups, said Dr. James, and thus the success of one's own program is often best achieved through the active support of another program. For example, the work of the health unit is closely concerned with welfare programs, for "poverty spreads disease and disease generates more poverty." Again, in a rural county, the health agency may support the drive for funds for highways because many communities are too isolated to take advantage of health services. Basic principles which determine content of health programs, he said, are related to three "axioms" concerning specific health needs, available resources, and community attitudes. Dr. James placed great emphasis on the need for developing preventive programs in welfare as well as health, and the need for cooperative case-finding. "None of us should take ref-

uge behind our charters, codes, or traditions if there is an opportunity for service," he said.

The community project in tuberculosis case-finding was described on a program sponsored jointly by the health and community organization sections, by Elizabeth P. Rice, Assistant Professor of Medical Social Work, Harvard School of Public Health. Half a million people are ill with tuberculosis, said Miss Rice, so that, in spite of gains, the problem is not yet a thing of the past, and calls for a "mass approach." Ten million people are being examined each year through the new program of mass X-ray, and tuberculosis surveys are being conducted in some of the larger cities. Because of the part which social factors play in the control of the disease, social workers have been participating in these surveys, assisting in the analysis of the contributory social factors, and helping patients and their families to understand and use community facilities and services.

Teamwork in planning youth services in Los Angeles was described on a program of the community organization section by Harry W. Waltz, Executive Secretary of that city's Metropolitan Recreation and Youth Services Council. The Los Angeles Youth Project, launched following the explosive "zoot suit riots" of 1943, the Youth Services Division of the Welfare Council, and his own organization, a thirty-member lay organization representing public and private agencies and the community at large, are at work on a series of activities aimed at reduction and prevention of delinquency, and provision of widespread recreation opportunities for the city's population. The basic problem in securing genuine lay participation, said Mr. Waltz, has been "the general attitude and competence of the professional." Professional training, he commented, has "too often left the trainee with the feeling that he has something that puts him apart, that he has a grasp of community problems which is beyond the comprehension of an ordinary layman." Competent and able laymen feel that their community's problems demand "better leadership than this represents," he said. Professional workers must realize that their training has helped to develop competence but not lose sight of the fact that "others have competence, too."

Speaking on the same program, Lester Peddy, Director of Borough Programs, New York City Youth Board, discussed an experiment in joint planning between a public agency and the community—the Bronx Pilot Project. The youth board, a municipal agency charged with organization of a program to prevent juvenile delinquency, developed the project to enable citizens to participate in local planning. Seven panels, composed of 115 persons living or working in the Bronx area, developed reports on the respective responsibility of church and home; school and teacher; police; recreation and social group work; housing, employment, and living standards; treatment resources; and courts dealing with children and youth. The panels met over a period of five months with Youth Board staff serving as panel moderators, liaison between panels, and resources for statistical and sociological data. The final report gained wide distribution, and resulted in recommendations for increase of recreation, social group work, counseling, family casework, and psychiatric services, many of which have been implemented by the Youth Board. A by-product has been "increased mutual understanding and respect between a public agency and its community," reported Mr. Peddy.

"We must drive home the lesson that after a social work project has been taken over by government, there is even greater need to retain citizen interest and control," declared Ralph Blanchard, Executive Director of Community Chests and Councils of America, in a paper on community organization in support of public welfare presented at another meeting of the community organization section. Fact-finding about extent of need, wide discussion in the effort to develop good standards, and the preparation, introduction, and support of sound legislative measures are among the community organization methods required by a public welfare program, he said. In some cities, he reported, it had been found that informal review of public agency budgets through community organization channels and the issuing of materials based on such reviews had "helped the giving public get past its confusion about why it is important not only to pay taxes but to support the Community Chest." All public departments should be active in the community council, he said, for "the genius of America is her capacity to join

public and private forces in the solution of her most pressing problems."

A plan of community cooperation which will enable slum-dwellers to participate in converting their substandard quarters into apartments which they can rent for approximately the same as they pay now was outlined at a meeting of the American Friends Service Committee by A. Hurford Crosman, secretary of the Self-Help Housing Committee of the Friends Service Committee in Philadelphia. Self-help housing is a plan by which a prospective homeowner can substitute his own labor for cash equity, explained Mr. Crosman. Tried out successfully in 1937 in Fayette County, Pennsylvania, by the Service Committee, the plan is now being carried out in rehabilitation of a Philadelphia slum area by the committee and the Friends Neighborhood Guild, a Philadelphia settlement house, in cooperation with the city planning commission, the redevelopment authority, the city council, and the Federal Housing Authority.

The rewards of community planning for homemaker service as illustrated by a project carried out in the Hamilton County Department of Welfare in Cincinnati were set forth in a session sponsored by the National Committee on Homemaker Service, by Janet Storey, State Supervisor of Child Welfare Service in the Ohio State Department of Welfare. Preliminary planning was done by a committee of lay and professional people under the leadership of the council of social agencies, which persuaded the public agency to open the service, following its study of extent of need. Careful attention to supervision, status, and salary of homemakers has contributed greatly to the success of the project, said the speaker, but broad participation of community people accounts for the fact that the community really accepts and understands the service.

Community institutions.—Established community institutions came into the spotlight at many points, and their services were reported on, scrutinized, and analyzed.

A critical look at mental hospital trends was taken in a session sponsored by the section on mental health, with Albert Deutsch, health and welfare writer, as the speaker. What he had to report added up to a combination of "significant progress, revolutionary

possibilities, and signs of retrogression." The personnel situation is today "both the hope and despair" of the mental hospital world, he said. He reported continued shortages in every professional category, and said we were just beginning to come to grips with the fact that much of the hospital care and treatment of the mentally sick "has reposed in the hands of untrained people." The phenomenon of "misplaced persons"—the commitment of large numbers of elderly people to mental hospitals, for lack of more suitable facilities—he termed "economically wasteful, ethically wrong, medically unnecessary, and personally degrading." Mr. Deutsch pointed out as developments which might well influence profoundly the future of mental hospitals, the arousal of considerable public interest in mental health, the "breaking down of the walls of isolation" by mental hospital authorities, the expanded use of volunteer workers, the founding and growth of the National Mental Health Foundation, the increased recognition of the psychiatric aide, establishment by the American Psychiatric Association of an inspection and rating system for mental hospitals, passage of the National Mental Health Act, and the "transformation of Veterans Administration psychiatric facilities from the backwaters of American psychiatry to advance outposts in the struggle upward." This speaker attacked the use of mechanical restraints in the hospitals, saying that their continued use, in the light of current knowledge, is "incompatible with the stated goals of a civilized democracy."

In a discussion of the status of juvenile courts before a meeting of the National Probation and Parole Association, Justine Wise Polier, justice of New York City's Domestic Relations Court, said that traditional attitudes and lack of adequate facilities for keeping abreast of changing scientific knowledge were producing conflict in the "children's court movement." Treatment of unfortunate children in our courts cannot continue to depend on local finance and local interest alone, she declared. She hailed two provisions of the Standard Juvenile Act—one allowing jurisdiction for the adoption of a minor, and another calling for nonpolitical selection of juvenile court judges—as being forward-looking ways of offering a fairer opportunity to children.

On the same program, an argument for the extension of jurisdic-

tion of juvenile courts to include domestic relation cases was advanced by James Hoge Ricks, judge of the Richmond (Virginia) Juvenile and Domestic Relations Court. Substantial public sentiment for such a move was discernible as early as 1914, reported the jurist, and at present the widest jurisdiction is given to such courts in Ohio, Delaware, New Jersey, and Virginia. He described the statute as revised this year by the General Assembly of Virginia which is broad enough to include every type of domestic difficulty except suits for divorce and legal separation. From his thirty-four years of experience, this speaker said he had concluded that "it is of prime importance that the court having the social viewpoint and the deepest interest in the welfare of the child should have the power to exercise protective influence over the home, before the child becomes delinquent."

Constructive programs in detention shelters, whether for delinquent, dependent, or neglected children, are safeguards for the children and the community, declared Ethel H. Wise, a member of the board of directors of New York City's Youth House, speaking at a session of the National Association of Training Schools. The period of the child's stay in detention "may be a turning point in his life," she warned, and the detention shelter can and should lay the groundwork for the rehabilitation of children whose conflict with the law or separation from home may "leave a mark on their whole lives." A good program, she said, includes the normal activities of school and recreation, a clinical staff to diagnose and evaluate the medical, psychological, and psychiatric needs of the child, and "an atmosphere of daily living in which the child can gain confidence through kindly adult acceptance, absence from fear, and the knowledge that he is being helped."

There is growing recognition that every part of the training school program has a "treatment potential," reported Richard Clendennen, consultant on training schools to the Children's Bureau, speaking at a meeting of the National Association of Training Schools, but in working toward that potential, there is great need for more staff development programs and more administrative personnel being hired for staff supervision. Mr. Clendennen urged more flexibility and balance in training school programming.

To the layman, the correctional institution is a place where "we put human beings in well-insulated places of custody, dress them alike, deprive them of identity and self-respect, and trust to . . . luck that a five- or ten-year deep freeze will preserve them against contamination of time." So said Robert J. Wright, Assistant General Secretary of the American Prison Association, in a paper given at the opening session of the section on delinquency. Mr. Wright said that in return for its share of the tax burden the community should demand that its penal institutions be truly correctional in nature, that they "have nothing whatsoever to do with politics," and that they be staffed by "trained workers of unimpeachable integrity." In too many instances, "the destructive quality is costing the taxpayer a pretty penny."

On the same program, Dorothy L. Book, Dean of the Boston College School of Social Work, said that the correctional institution and the community agency must understand each other's functions and services so as "to help the individual child become a socially responsible person," and Charles Leonard, Superintendent of the Illinois State Training School for Boys, declared that community agencies have too frequently thought of the correctional institution as a "punitive resource and dumping ground." The institution alone cannot bring about a "cure," said Mr. Leonard, and it looks to the community agency to assist with the program by helping family members. "If the intake doors of community agencies remain closed to the delinquent and his family," he said, "the institutional program is automatically weakened."

Making up the training school budget is "an opportunity for making an administrative review of your total operation," Raymond W. Houston, Deputy Commissioner, New York State Department of Social Welfare, told an audience of the National Association of Training Schools. Mr. Houston said that when it comes to running interference for a budget through groups of political and legislative leaders, "you must establish yourself as a person who can be liked and respected," and must "leave the professional lingo at home." The speaker had a word of caution about when it is wise to "submit bright new plans," and stated that "probably more heads have rolled in public service because of mishandling or care-

less and indefensible use of funds than for any other cause." As for legislators, Mr. Houston discussed the instance when an appropriation is made but the department is advised that 10 percent of it will not be available for spending, a practice which he termed "childish and intolerable."

It is more difficult to secure money for clinics, aftercare, casework, and psychiatry than for food and clothing, said Mr. Houston, because these services are rendered by "professions which are confused and unsettled in themselves and have not gained general acceptance." In New York, such services have been requested on an experimental basis and once the service is established, effort to gather data as to its effectiveness has immediately begun, in preparation for the next request. Though no one gets the money he thinks he needs, it was his opinion that "more programs languish for lack of imagination than for lack of funds."

On the same program, Sanford Bates, Commissioner of New Jersey's Department of Institutions and Agencies, said that the administrator will find members of his legislature "his most receptive and sympathetic critics," if he invites them to his institution and lets them get the inside view of the job. It will not do, said Mr. Bates, "for the administrator to deplore the fact that management has been taken out of his hands; he must seek to set up an effective partnership, with himself as the central policy-maker, with these extra-departmental administrative authorities, his partners and allies."

On another program of the Association, James B. Nolan, President of the Police Athletic League and Deputy Commissioner of New York City's Police Department, said that police departments are "no longer satisfied with the development of scientific techniques for the detention and apprehension of violators," but are anxious to help other community agencies in the preventive job. He described the working relationship between the New York State Training School for Boys and the city Police Department, through its Juvenile Aid Bureau and the Police Athletic League. Opportunities are provided for youngsters returning to the community to join the PAL recreation and social activities, and attempts are made to help youngsters find jobs fitting their talents and capacities.

A survey of eighty-eight juvenile training schools in this country and Hawaii was reported on in a meeting of the National Probation and Parole Association by Elizabeth Betz, Special Research Assistant of the Children's Bureau and the Association. It was found that the majority of training schools use some other word along with "parole" to describe the release process, she reported, and she commented that opposition to the term "parole" is "widespread." Eligibility for release from training schools is determined in a majority of schools by the satisfactory adjustment of the child in the school. The most prevalent method of release is that in which the superintendent with the aid of other groups or individuals has authority to parole. Patterns of parole supervision were studied, but "the most significant factor . . . in relation to this subject is the confusion of ideas and motives which prevail," said Miss Betz.

At another group meeting, Randolph Wise, Director of Parole for the Association, stated that "the qualitative range of parole in the United States in order of prevalence is mediocrity, efficiency, and total inadequacy." Mr. Wise reviewed the history of parole in this country, and declared that prevailing weaknesses could be overcome by "a demonstration of courage, determination, and confidence in the professional purpose of parole."

The same subject was discussed on a program of the National Association of Training Schools by Howard Ohmart, Assistant Chief, Division of Field Services, California Youth Authority. In terms of the number of people it serves, said Mr. Ohmart, "parole is one of the major correctional instrumentalities of our time" and "deserves full partnership in the family of treatment techniques." Since 1943 when the Youth Authority was established, he reported, the number of training institutions has grown from three to eleven, the corresponding parole staffs from thirteen to eighty, and the parole case load from 1,100 to 3,500. In this period of reorganization and growth, certain principles have been developed, among which is the fact that "the essence of parole is supervision."

State and national planning.—Planning for health and welfare on a state and national basis claimed the attention of conferees, and in one session of the section on community organization the relationship between the national and local agencies—an important

but neglected field of interest—was dealt with directly. Here Nathan E. Cohen, Professor of Social Work, New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, stressed that the real point of service is "on the local level," and that the only reason-for-being of the national agency is to provide services locally. He also called attention to the effect of what he termed "societal interdependence" on national-local relationships, saying that these relationships are conditioned by the interagency relationships among national agencies as well as the relationship between the national office of an agency with its own locals and those of other agencies.

Speaking on the same program, Helen Rowe, Associate National Director, Camp Fire Girls, said that the primary job of national field services was to assist local communities meet their problems while guaranteeing that locals meet national standards. It is the responsibility of the national agency, she said, to help locals keep abreast of trends related to the agency's field of interest.

Organization of the nation, the state, and the community in preparation for the Midcentury White House Conference was the subject of a meeting of the public welfare section. Melvin A. Glaser, Executive Secretary of the Conference, said that an attendance of from 3,500 to 5,000 was expected when the Conference convenes in December, 1950. Five hundred lay agencies are participating, and young people also are having their part in shaping the plans. Though the funds are predominantly from voluntary sources, the government is giving help through many bureaus and agencies, providing data, and making special studies. Loa Howard, administrator of the Oregon State Public Welfare Commission, reported that in her state, a governor's committee on childhood and youth had been formed from the nucleus of a group organized in 1942 to follow up on the findings of the 1940 White House Conference. The committee consists of sixty-four lay and professional people, supplemented by study committees of specialists in medicine, social work, and education. The job of the study committees is to outline unmet needs, gather and analyze data, and make recommendations as to present services. Ruth O. Bell, District Supervisor of the South Carolina Department of Public Welfare, described the organization of citizens for children and youth in her state, a committee

composed of individuals from twenty-seven state-wide organizations having interest in youth. The forty-six counties of the state submitted studies of their counties to the central committee, and these have been summarized according to subject by students in seven colleges and the state library association, and are now being compiled for state-wide distribution.

National planning for chronic disease control was discussed on a program of the health section, jointly sponsored with the section of the aged and the section on industrial and economic problems, by Dr. Morton Levin, Director of the Commission on Chronic Illness, an independent national agency founded by joint action of the American Hospital Association, the American Medical Association, the American Public Health Association, and the American Public Welfare Association. Dr. Levin described the plans of the Commission for a nation-wide survey of present activities and planning in all phases of chronic disease, a survey which will study in one or two representative communities the prevalence of various types of chronic disease, and a health education campaign to assist local communities in "acquainting their people with the true nature and scope of the chronic disease program."

On a program of the section on community organization, Earle G. Lippincott, Program Secretary, United Health and Welfare Fund of Michigan, discussed state and national efforts to develop more orderly procedures for financing voluntary services. Though Michigan has not completely solved the problem of multiple appeals for health and welfare causes, valuable remedies are being developed, he reported. He paid tribute to work being done in Minnesota, Massachusetts, and Oregon, as well as in his own state, and declared that the fundamental task is "to produce dollars enough for program enough," for "orderliness alone is not enough." As to the work of the two-year-old state fund in Michigan, he reported that though allocations from the first campaign yielded about 50 percent of approved budgets, this was still more money than agencies had been able to obtain in either of the two previous years. He made an unofficial estimate that allocations from the second campaign would be more than 70 percent of approved budgets.

State-wide community organization is a growing field, declared

Arthur Dunham, Professor of Community Organization and Acting Director, Institute of Social Work, University of Michigan, at a community organization section meeting. Professor Dunham reported that there are 500 or more state-wide organizations, including public welfare agencies, citizens' welfare associations, state conferences of social work, and state health, child welfare, and recreation organizations, which are involved in state-wide health and welfare planning. Such planning includes jobs such as providing conferences and forums, fact-finding, fostering joint planning and action of state-wide problems, education and interpretation, legislative analysis, mobilization of citizen interest, services in relation to joint financing, and assistance to local communities. Mr. Dunham said a state department of public welfare can and should perform certain community organization functions, but should not be expected to take the lead in controversial matters of legislative promotion and social action. Further, he stated, "every state needs a voluntary organization concerned with broad health and welfare planning." Whatever its form, he said, the organization should be a year-round concern; have a broad citizen membership, a board composed chiefly of laymen, a skilled staff with at least two professionally qualified workers, and a budget of not less than \$25,000. It was his opinion that so far as possible, the program of the state health and welfare planning agency should be "as broad as the whole field of health and welfare."

Speaking on the same program, W. Earl Prosser, Executive Director, Ohio Citizens' Council for Health and Welfare, discussed current problems of state planning. The five factors which may operate adversely to create problems—or favorably to create opportunities—he termed "people, power, money, time, and space." Mr. Prosser discussed the "gross representative inequalities" existing in state legislatures where cities having large populations have much less representation than the sparsely populated rural areas, and said that "excessive lobbying interests" constituted "one of the worst evils functioning at the state level of government." The problem of support for the voluntary state planning agency is also a crucial one. Discussing potential sources of support, he said that there is good reason to believe that if state federations for money-raising include

these planning groups "they may offer the strongest source of potential support for voluntary planning groups operating on the state level."

Today's special problems.—Some of the sections and associate groups undertook to bring to the Conference a fuller picture of a few of the special problems which are currently knocking at the door of our American communities, begging for solution. For several years the problems presented by the rapid growth of the proportion of older citizens in our population have occupied a prominent place, not only on the programs of the section devoted to that subject, but on programs of other groups. In 1950 it was again a Conference headliner. Programs, particularly of the health section, dealt with that priority item, chronic illness, in a full and illuminating fashion. Blindness and cancer, which have assumed more importance as health problems with the increase of an aging population, also claimed considerable attention. And on the programs of at least three associate groups the devices which communities support to aid in the rehabilitation of disabled folk were discussed in detail.

Present-day ideas regarding old age are too generally based upon the popular stereotype of the worthlessness of old people, declared Wilma Donahue, Institute for Human Adjustment, School of Graduate Studies, University of Michigan, speaking at the opening session of the section on the aged. Older people retain "not only a need, but a capacity" for well-rounded living in their later years, she said. Describing the role of education in "insuring a future for age," she reviewed the types of educational programs now going on, including courses on aging, industrial educational programs, retraining and counseling services, research and experimental programs, and professional training courses. It was her opinion that "education has a responsibility for equipping the individual to meet the new problems of the later phase of life."

At a group meeting of the social group work section, Helen Hall, Executive Director of New York City's Henry Street Settlement, drew on her encounters with older members of two settlement neighborhoods to show that "the aged are people." Active older people, she said, "present the greatest tragedy and the greatest

waste in our community and are the greatest challenge to our ingenuity." The older people with whom she has come in contact in the settlement program, she said, have made her aware "of the gathering depression which can settle with the years—but also of the buoyancy which can only be defeated at the last breath." Some, she said, had shown her "that romance is no respecter of age"; others, that the creative impulse endures as long as life does; and still others, that "familiar surroundings give a security worth fighting for." All have an intensified "need to be needed," she added.

A philosophy for public welfare workers regarding their work with older people was developed at a session of the public welfare section by Peter Kasius, Deputy Commissioner of the New York State Department of Social Welfare. "The rocking chair should not be the symbol of dignity or security," said Mr. Kasius, for though retirement plans have their place, "there is great danger in over-emphasis on this one problem to the exclusion of others which should be directed at keeping people active, creative, and productive." We should avoid isolating the oldsters from the rest of the community, he said, calling for measures to prevent conditions which bring on chronic disability and other forms of social incapacity. These measures include better housing, better health, rehabilitation services, vocational guidance and retraining, and, "particularly, medical home care counseling services in relation to all kinds of adjustments that people must make as they grow older." However, he warned against considering such services as "something unique for a special selected group," for they should be part of "a total program in which the unmet needs of all people are brought into proper balance."

Two meetings of the health section were devoted to discussion of chronic illness. In the first of these, conducted jointly with the sections on the aged and on industrial and economic problems, Dr. W. Palmer Dearing, Deputy Surgeon General in the Public Health Service of the Federal Security Agency, said that nearly one million deaths and one billion days of disability are recorded each year due to chronic illness. He termed chronic illness as "the nation's number one health menace." Though medical programs in behalf of chronic illness has been enormous in the past half century,

he said, today three out of four hospitalized patients are suffering from chronic conditions, and 38 percent of all services by physicians are rendered to the chronically ill. The two greatest needs of this time are for prevention and the organization of community services for attack on chronic disease. He pointed out that though chronic disease is reported for one third of the population over the age of fifty, three of the 5,000,000 children under twenty are also suffering from chronic disease or physical impairment.

Speaking on the same program, Eli Ginzberg, Director, New York State Hospital Study, and Associate Professor of Economics, School of Business, Columbia University, said that on the basis of the study he would not advise communities to cope with chronic disease by building special wings on general hospitals. Experimental programs now going on, he thought, might prove that general hospitals can provide effective service for these patients. Stressing the need for further work on prevention and rehabilitation, Mr. Ginzberg said in the immediate situation he felt there was value in both the nursing home and the county home, if the government could establish and enforce minimum standards. He also recommended expanding home care programs so as to reduce the number of patients needing hospital care.

At the second of these meetings, this time conducted jointly with the section on the aged and the section on community organization, a panel discussed resources and services in home care and nursing homes. Home care programs have been developed in the belief that many chronically ill hospitalized patients could benefit as much, or even more, from such treatment as though they occupied hospital beds, said Geneva Feamon, Medical Social Consultant of the United States Public Health Service Division on Chronic Disease. However, she said, this is dependent upon hospital services being brought into the home and the coordination of these services with other community resources. Such programs have demonstrated that "very sick people can be provided in their own homes with a high level of medical care," with great benefit to themselves and great saving for their communities. The success of the program requires staff with skill and judgment in selection of patients, and evaluation of their homes, as well as adequate community resources.

to supplement the families that carry much of the burden of care.

Another member of the panel, Edith Baker, Director of the Medical Social Work Unit of the Children's Bureau's Division of Health Services, outlined the methods of "mitigating the traumatic effects of long-term illness" of children. Some of these ways, allowing for the fact that children of different ages have different emotional requirements, were the proper preparation of the child for separation, hospital care, and operations; arranging for mothers to care for their own children; arranging for care in small units; development of social group work program; and maintaining flexible visiting hours. Knowledge of child growth and development and organized teamwork of all those working under the physician's supervision are basically important factors in meeting the needs of sick and convalescent children, she maintained.

Dr. Ellen C. Potter, former Director of the Division of Medicine at the New Jersey State Department of Institutions and Agencies, discussed the steps in the educational process of arranging for home care. Staff members who are carrying out this job must see their supervisory functions as comparable to those of the caseworker and teacher, she said, and not as those of the policeman.

The changing patterns of disease in an aging population were discussed by three speakers on a program of the American Cancer Society. There appears to be a direct correlation between old age and the incidence of cancer, said Ollie A. Randall, Consultant on Services for the Aged at New York City's Community Service Society, but the reasons for this have not yet been established. New methods for detecting all kinds of chronic disease and the public response to health education programs are both hopeful factors, but "there is great need for education of professional workers, as well as of individuals and families, to remove the elements of fear and dread from both old age and chronic illness," if the pattern of disease is to change "as radically as science already enables us to change it," declared Miss Randall.

Statistics indicate that about 20 percent of the present population may be expected to develop cancer, said Dr. Morton L. Levin, Director of the Commission on Chronic Illness, and in future years this percentage will probably increase. The best chance for a com-

prehensive control program for cancer as well as other chronic diseases lies in the pooling of the resources of voluntary and official organizations set up to deal with the various diseases, he thought. To some extent, this is already under way, but "it will have to go much farther . . . if we are to meet adequately the problem presented by cancer and other chronic diseases in an aging population," he concluded.

The work of the American Cancer Society in educating the public and providing a meeting ground for the many disciplines involved in work on prevention and treatment was described by Dr. Carl E. Wilbur, former Assistant Director of the service section in the Society's medical and scientific department. The known means of cancer control at present are "early suspicion, accurate diagnosis, and adequate treatment," he said, and the "great mission" of the Society is to "heighten the suspicion index in all the people." On another program of the Society, Charlotte Payne, Lay Service Director of the Society, told of the work of 1,000,000 volunteers in the country who are carrying out an educational and service program through the Society.

Appearing on the same program was Ruth Abrams, of the social service department of Massachusetts General Hospital, who is a member of the Society's medical social work advisory committee. Miss Abrams reported on a study of the attitudes of cancer patients conducted in her hospital. "Guilt was the most prominent personality reaction found," she said, "with the usual pattern of this attitude found in the uniform impression shared by these patients that cancer was a disease of unclean or sinful origin." The study showed that these attitudes were responsible in many instances for preventing patients from seeking early medical attention. It was concluded that giving patients and their families a chance to discuss these feelings, as well as promotion of educational efforts by physicians, nurses, and social workers, was needed to help bring about better control of the disease and rehabilitation of these patients.

The concepts of the "blind beggar," the "blind genius," and the superstition of "sensory compensation" which exist in our culture do much to force the blind person into a stereotype which greatly affects both his own personality and the social situation in which

he moves, reported Joseph Himes, Jr., Professor of Sociology, North Carolina College, speaking at a meeting of the American Foundation for the Blind. He emphasized the need for planned and organized programs "designed to transform cultural conceptions of the blind into more objective and faithful representations of their subjects."

Speaking on the same program, Dorothy Anderson, Assistant State Supervisor, home teaching section, Pennsylvania State Council for the Blind, made a plea for social caseworkers to change their own attitudes toward blindness and blind persons, along the lines suggested in Mr. Himes's address, for in the job of helping the blind person and his family, the caseworker must be free of these attitudes in order to give thoughtful and constructive assistance. A large part of the casework task, said Miss Anderson, is to help the blind person "accept these concepts and at the same time . . . function adequately in spite of them." In the case of the blind child, the caseworker must "assist the family to free themselves of preconceived ideas concerning blindness," for the sake of the child's successful adjustment.

The particularly difficult adjustment of the aging blind was discussed by Ollie A. Randall on another program sponsored by the Foundation. Although she stressed the need for "keener insight into the psychological needs of people afflicted in this way," Miss Randall put principal emphasis on the fact that more can be done to make the lot of older people more comfortable and their vision more effective. There exists much more in the way of scientific "know-how" as well as in corrective devices than is currently being used, she reported, and there is need to emphasize the fact that the maintenance of a high level of general health is one method for preserving a better degree of sight for a longer period of time.

A diversity of services and facilities at varying stages of development exists today for service of the aged blind, said Flora Fox, Central Bureau for the Jewish Aged, speaking on the same program. Though these do not attempt to meet the total need, there is growing awareness of the way resources set up within the community can be organized to help with this problem. She urged workers in this field to redouble their efforts to make the need known, and

recommended the sharing of specialized knowledge as one effective means for enlisting special attention of community agencies and organizations.

The goal of the sheltered workshop is to help the disabled person achieve economic independence, explained Louise McGuire, of the Department of Labor's Wages and Hours Division, speaking on a program of the National Committee on Sheltered Workshops and Homebound Programs. Though there is no uniform pattern for workshops since community needs vary, she urged reevaluation and establishment of standards. On another program of the Committee, intake policies in workshops were discussed by Elizabeth Maloney, Assistant Director, Department of the Handicapped, Brooklyn (New York) Bureau of the Handicapped. There is some difference in this intake situation, she pointed out, for the client looks upon the caseworker as a prospective employer. She stressed the need for caseworker and client to work out the rehabilitation plan together and to make sure "there is a definite focus to the plan." In a discussion of staffing and personnel policies within the workshop, Gertrude Norcross, of the Connecticut chapter, National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, said experience had shown that a person of casework background was best suited to make the initial contact with the handicapped person at intake.

Pragmatic testing, work evaluation, and vocational guidance are important parts of the workshop's program, said Walter Loague, Executive Director, Goodwill Industries of Denver, for a good agency must be well equipped to prepare handicapped persons for employment in regular industry. Industry's problem in accepting the handicapped worker arises chiefly with those whose disability is an active one, said Ann Lehman, Director of Selective Service, New York State Employment Service, for with these workers pension and compensation problems are the most troublesome.

Industrial homework for handicapped people should have the same standards as those in industry and the pay should be the same, said Iris Booth, Executive Secretary, Community Workshops of Providence, Rhode Island. Describing service to the permanently and temporarily homebound handicapped person, Mrs. Booth stressed the importance of requiring a physician's recommendation

as to the "work tolerance" of the applicant before he is considered eligible for the homebound service. In addition to furnishing homework as part of the rehabilitation of the homebound person, said Glenn Leighbody, Managing Director, Buffalo Goodwill Industries, it is important to furnish recreation. In Mr. Leighbody's organization the homebound individual is encouraged to come into the workshop as soon as possible, though he very often has great resistance to this. A recreational and social program is carried on in the shop to help increase his desire to be a part of the workshop group.

At a meeting of the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Maud Plummer, Director of the homebound program for the New Hampshire Society for Crippled Children and Handicapped Persons, discussed marketing outlets for handicraft articles produced in rehabilitation programs. She said that commercial outlets, such as department stores and gift shops, and "charitable" outlets, such as church bazaars, were most frequently used. A third outlet which she recommended was the "institutional sale" which could be carried on in public places, such as hotel lobbies and plane, train, and bus terminals.

At the same meeting, Alfred L. Severson, Executive Director of the Chicago Lighthouse for the Blind, said that contract work in the sheltered workshop has value as part of the program, but a shop based exclusively on contract work suffers from a "certain instability." The most common kinds of contracts, he said, are let by shops for "nuisance jobs," and jobs for which they lack space or manpower. Small new firms sometimes like to use such a resource as an assembly, storage, and shipping facility, he added.

Contract work is not so desirable as the work provided by the reconditioning of unwanted clothing, household furnishings and appliances, observed Charles L. Priest, Superintendent, Goodwill Industries of Philadelphia, speaking on a program of the Goodwill Industries of America. However, he remarked, it does have a place in the program of Goodwill Industries and "contributes to a full program of services."

On the same program, Dorothy L. Rice, Executive Director of the Goodwill Industries of Houston, Texas, gave a full outline of

desirable personnel policies and staff qualifications for the successful operation of a Goodwill Industries program. And in another paper presented at this session, Bryce W. Nichols, Executive Director of the Goodwill Industries of Cincinnati, discussed the advantages of using specially skilled professional people in the organization program. "Whenever we combine handicapped men and discarded materials with intelligent professionally trained leaders in special service fields, we open up new areas of service and employment and completed rehabilitation for increased numbers of our community results," said Mr. Nichols.

Citizen participation.—This year, as it was at Cleveland in 1949, the importance of citizen participation was stressed "across the boards" by all kinds of practitioners and representatives of many special fields of work within the health and welfare total job. A good part of this interest centered on the two-day program of the Advisory Committee on Citizen Participation of Community Chests and Councils of America and the National Social Welfare Assembly.

Citizen participation in health and welfare as it is currently working out in one city—Washington, D.C.—was discussed from various points of view on the first program sponsored by the Committee. Here Arthur Kruse, Executive Secretary of Washington's United Community Services, said trends of "lack of complete confidence" in social agency functioning and persistence of a "narrow concept of charity" were related to a "drying-up of community participation." In Washington, he reported, a Volunteer Services Department is now part of the community planning council, which is made up of eighty health and welfare agencies, forty government agencies, and seventy-five representatives of the general public. The philosophy is that the volunteer bureau works on the whole program, he said, instead of "merely special chores."

The advisory committee to this volunteer bureau, said Mrs. Charles Runyon, III, chairman of the Volunteer Services Department, is broadly representative, having members who represent each of the five planning sections of the council, each of the chief organizations having planned volunteer programs, and at least six other organizations interested in volunteer work. Mrs. Runyon felt

that the central volunteer office for the channeling of requests for service as well as offers of service was a desirable device in these "strenuous and unsettled times." She reported that the Washington volunteer office had had more success in recruiting groups to give volunteer service than in enlisting the services of individuals, and stressed the value to agencies when time and money are invested in training and supervision of volunteers. Enthusiastic volunteers are one of the best groups of interpreters of social work services and social needs, she said, and the best community leadership comes from board members who have had volunteer experience.

Special attention is given by this volunteer office to getting a full and accurate picture of agency programs and the place of laymen in that program, both as board members and service volunteers, said Marjorie Collins, Director of the Volunteer Services Department. In this way the volunteer office is able to give much more intelligent help to the agency in referring volunteers as well as insuring a more satisfactory placement for the volunteer group or individual. It has been found that there are literally hundreds of groups in the community which are interested in giving services of various kinds, she said. She described the somewhat extensive program in cooperation with universities, colleges, and junior colleges in obtaining student volunteer service, for which in some cases academic credit is given, and told of the advisory service given to agencies in helping them develop new volunteer programs and opportunities. Though "we cannot point with pride to the great number of people recruited and referred," said Miss Collins, "we can take comfort in the quality of performance of some of the volunteers we have helped to find their places." Planning, training, and supervision have made volunteers realize that these are jobs to be taken seriously, she added.

A "satisfied customer" of the Washington volunteer office appeared on the program to present the agency point of view. Gerard M. Shea, Washington's Director of Public Welfare, noted that "much of the impetus to a volunteer program rests on the willingness of the administrator or his assigned representative to exert consistent and enthusiastic energy." A liaison person from the staff

can help minimize the "conflicts and inconveniences" that arise in setting up a volunteer program in an agency, he said. Mr. Shea described how the program worked, especially in the child welfare and protective institution programs, and said it was his feeling that "the volunteer movement in its present advanced and organized phases has considerable to offer toward the future of better citizenry."

At the Committee's second session, Harold DeMuth, Executive Secretary, West Hudson Branch, Welfare Federation of Newark, New Jersey, presented a report on a study which he had made in connection with his master's thesis, to determine the extent and role of citizen participation in state welfare administration. Questionnaires sent to the executives of state agencies revealed that there are 272 citizen boards and committees in the general welfare field with a total membership of 2,385 people. Eight states have no such boards. Fifteen state boards were classified as administrative, eighteen as policy-making groups, and four as advisory. The last-named had the functions of fact-finding, studying of conditions, and making of recommendations to the executive or the governor. Boards ranged in size from three to fifteen members. Chairmen are elected by board members in twenty-two states, appointed by the governor in eleven states, and appointed through provisions of state codes in four states. Tenure of elected chairmen averages 9.8 years; and of appointed chairmen, 4 years.

Thirty-nine percent of these board members had been selected on the basis of recognized and demonstrated interest in public welfare, but an equal number were not required to meet any such qualifications. The term of office was four, five, or six years, and 95 percent of the board members were eligible for reappointment. The age range of these citizens was from thirty-one to eighty-one, with 56 percent between forty-six and sixty. One third were women, many of them homemakers. There was an average of one Negro to seventy white members among the total group. Although 24 percent returned no information as to political affiliation, among those who did, there was an almost equal division between Republicans and Democrats.

Many of these board members had had previous experience

on local voluntary health and welfare boards, councils of social agencies, and community chests. A few had served on national agency boards and county boards. There were ten former state legislators and nine former executives of state or county welfare organizations. Twenty-three had been or were professional social workers.

An average of forty hours a year spent in board meetings was reported. The meetings were open to the public in fifteen states, closed in ten states. Nine states reported that "the question never arose," and six others said that the public attended when invited.

Eleven states said that matters recommended or initiated by boards were usually put into effect. Three states said this happened "sometimes." All but two boards call upon state staff for consultation, and more than one half keep in touch with local programs through staff reports.

Discussing Mr. DeMuth's report from the viewpoint of the Federal agency, Louise FitzSimons, Regional Representative of the Bureau of Public Assistance in Region III, said that the effectiveness of citizen participation on boards is "conditioned by the pattern of citizen participation in the governmental and community functions of localities, counties, and states." Staff members must accept the agency "as an expression of democracy for all people," she added, and "must accept this expression in the law as it defines the function of the board."

Administrators sometimes fear boards, observed Mrs. Henry Bethell, Commissioner of the Arkansas Department of Public Welfare, but if boards are kept informed, "they become a bulwark of strength." Describing the use of the state board in her state, Mrs. Bethell said the executive of the department must give the board leadership in order for it to function effectively.

Youth participation in community service was the subject of the day at another session of the Committee, when eleven representatives of youth groups and six adult leaders from youth organizations held a panel discussion, with George Corwin, Secretary for Youth Services at the National Council, YMCA, acting as moderator.

If youth is to be responsible in a democratic society, said Mr.

Corwin in opening the meeting, adults must open the way for them to share in real responsibilities. Youth can participate as members of an organization, as planners for their own needs, and as sharers in over-all planning and policy-making, he remarked. Most young people, he added, are ready for many more opportunities than are provided them.

As the discussion proceeded, it appeared that an important problem was how to get young people and adults together. Where there's a will, there's a way, was the reply, for "if you make the program interesting, youth will want to participate and will find time to meet with the adults." However, it was pointed out that youth workers must gear schedules to the times when youth are available, even though on occasion schools permit participation in outside programs during school hours because of the valuable experience gained. Youth is always available if provided with an interesting job, the panel members agreed, and "it is important not to create artificial things for youth to do."

The tendency of adults to take a superior attitude toward young people was brought out, and it was emphasized that young people should be represented in all phases of planning in an organization, if their participation, understanding, and support are really desired. At another point, this idea was developed to include the fact that youth want to work together with adults on a more equal footing, that they welcome adults who want to come into their meetings as observers, that they would like to feel a mutual concern operating between themselves and groups of adults. One person mentioned the fact that organizations too often pick youth representatives rather than asking a group to choose its own, and this does not always insure either cooperation between the group and its representative or that the representative is the best choice.

Both youth and adults must be prepared to work with each other, said the panel members. Youth is apt to consider adult plans conservative, and adults are apt to consider youth plans radical, so there is need for shared experiences which will lead to mutual confidence.

At a meeting of the Child Welfare League of America, sponsored jointly with the Episcopal Service for Youth, the board member's

responsibility to the community was discussed by Herbert N. Diamond, head of the Department of Economics and Sociology at Lehigh University. The board member's first responsibility, beyond that for the internal operation and function of the agency, said Mr. Diamond, is to contribute to the community's awareness of the adequacy and integrity of his own agency, its place in the community, and its interrelations with other private and public agencies. He must be concerned about the community's unmet needs and ways of getting leadership to meet them, must strive to see that his board is really representative of "every range of community opinion and leadership," and must do his part to keep the community aware of the trends in the field in which his agency is working.

How a citizens' advisory council contributes to the development of a juvenile court probation department was described on a program of the National Probation and Parole Association by Charles H. Boswell, Chief Probation Officer, Marion County (Indiana) Juvenile Court. Emphasis on scientific methods in court work must not exclude awareness that agencies and courts exist to serve the community, said Mr. Boswell, and he added that "unfortunately, many of our courts and public agencies have tried to solve their problems alone." The "bitter experience" of seeing competent personnel displaced by partisan political workers could be prevented, he said, "by opening the doors of the court to enlightened citizens interested in its welfare." Correctional organizations must rely heavily upon civic groups, he pointed out, but the truly helpful citizen is one who has a feeling of "individual responsibility to society." The capacity for responsibility grows as the citizen participates, he concluded.

The future of a democratic government is related to our ability as a nation to help each person to realize his maximum possibilities, said Melvin A. Glasser, Executive Director of the Midcentury White House Conference, speaking before a meeting sponsored by the Church Conference of Social Work. "In talking of citizen responsibility for child welfare in a democracy," said Mr. Glasser, "we accept for ourselves the belief that failure to develop the possibilities in any single person—and it is the people who are our real

resources—is an irreparable loss to all of us, because the democratic society can only thrive and develop through its members—all of us." This White House Conference, said its director, already constitutes "one of the largest citizens' movements for children in the history of the country," for citizens are at work on projects in connection with the Conference in every state and territory, and in both large and small cities.

IV. COMMON SERVICES

THE CONFERENCE offered in 1950, as in former years, a substantial number of discussions of those aspects of social work which may be called "common services." Public relations and interpretation, long a thorn in the flesh to a profession which needs so badly to be better understood by the public it serves, was discussed on a handful of programs, usually in connection with special services. Research, which has become a growing interest in the field, was brought to the Conference on programs which dealt, not so much with exhortation about the need for research, but with evidence that plans for it were out of the blueprint stage.

The issues surrounding social work education were emphasized in many of the Conference discussions but came out directly in several papers. Similarly, problems of supervision, administration, staff development, and those personnel interests peculiar to the social work profession found their way into a variety of programs, again in a generalized rather than specific approach.

Interpretation and public relations.—Since current public controversies about expansion of government social services affect both governmental and private social work, examination of public attitudes in this area was brought to the Conference on a program sponsored jointly by the Community Chests and Councils of America and the National Publicity Council for Health and Welfare Services. Speaking on the basis of polls made on related subjects for industrial concerns, Walter Barlow, Managing Editor, *Public Opinion Index for Industry*, Princeton, New Jersey, was able to give the audience four major clues.

People in general unquestionably favor expansion of social services, he said. Their only question is one of means, not ends. Secondly, government participation in social services is now an accepted fact. However, he added, indiscriminate growth in Federal Government power is not looked upon with favor. Thirdly, people see no need to turn over to government a private agency program which is adequately filling an existing social need; but when faced with an unmet social need, people tend to say that the government should do something about it. Finally, people in general expect to shoulder most of the burden of taking care of themselves. In the field of pensions and old age assistance, Mr. Barlow's research sources indicated that people "vote by majority that company plans should be contributory," as a moral rather than an economic obligation.

Mr. Barlow said there is a strong moral factor in people's response to charitable appeals, and that, for most, there is an element of pride and responsibility in helping support hometown programs. He warned voluntary agencies not to give the impression that they were against government services, for, in doing so, they might be considered an "enemy of the people."

A sizable and highly opinionated audience participated in another session sponsored by the National Publicity Council, where two teams of social workers acted out situations in which interpretation of social agency service is being given to interested citizens from the community. Moderator Sophia M. Robison, Associate Professor of Social Work at the New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, had her hands full in keeping audience participation "down to a roar" as dozens of social workers volunteered criticism, approval, suggestion, and countersuggestion on the methods and principles used by the teams. To an observer there could be no doubt that not only are social workers interested in interpretation of their services, but also that they have ideas about how it should be done. However, as one commented, "I still think staff workers can be the best interpreters of an agency service, but I can see it's easier said than done!"

Social work has an unenviable position when it comes to public relations, said Rosemary Morrissey, Public Relations Counsel, Or-

leans Parish Department of Public Welfare, New Orleans, on a program sponsored by the public welfare section. She suggested that social work had long occupied a defensive position, interpreting its program when "driven to it by adverse criticism." Staff members can and should be the profession's finest salesmen, she said, but they are hindered from doing this job when they do not have the opportunity for full participation and freedom of expression through the channels which have been or should be set up within the organization. Miss Morrissey suggested that emphasis should be placed on "what we cannot do and why, so that an informed public will be motivated to fill in the gaps." She seemed to feel that only by taking the public into our confidence would we be able to help them understand that "it is their job honestly to face these problems and work unitedly toward their solution."

In her remarks as discussant of Miss Morrissey's paper, Mary Taylor, Director, Division of Reports, United States Children's Bureau, said that though public relations was reputed to be everybody's business, we must learn that very often everybody's business turns out to be nobody's business. She supported Miss Morrissey's point that staff members can be an agency's best salesman but said it is "just as unreasonable to expect the staff to do a good public relations job without constant help and direction from a person trained in this field as it is unreasonable to expect a caseworker to do a good job if there is no supervisor to help her." Miss Taylor maintained that though public relations activities are a specialized function ideally calling for at least one professional staff member, a volunteer public relations committee could be of great assistance. She emphasized that such a committee should consist of key people from the communications field, including the consumers of the service and people with specific skills in using the techniques of communication. Many people, she commented, believe public relations to be some sort of "trickery," and she suggested that something might be gained by referring to such a specialized job by some name which would emphasize its function to insure that everything is done in line with the public interest.

The community interpretation of a mental health program was described by two speakers at a group meeting sponsored by the

section on community organization and planning. Samuel Whitman, Executive Director, Cleveland Mental Hygiene Association, emphasized the need to "start where the community is" and drove home the fact that all programs, whether they be national or international in scope, eventually depend on "the amount of local understanding in the local community." He described a project which grew out of community concern about a local mental hospital in Cleveland. Eventually, this interest developed into more widespread use of volunteers, the establishment of a citizens' advisory committee, improvement in commitment procedure, and expansion and strengthening of programs in clinics, hospital psychiatric wards, and public schools. He pointed out that though a group may first be aroused by concern for the mentally ill, it then moves on to emphasis on prevention.

Speaking on the same program, Iva Aukes, Associate Director, Illinois Society for Mental Hygiene, Chicago, talked from the point of view of relating the state program of a mental hygiene association to programs of the local community. She pointed out that the most important workers in mental hygiene are those in closest contact with the community, such as social workers and teachers, and that state organizations can help in orienting such personnel through educational programs devoted to the principles of mental hygiene and the dynamics of human behavior. The state organization also can help to point out gaps in specialized services and to offer consultative services to interest the citizen and the local community, and this can serve as a nucleus for organization and local planning.

According to her experience, the public wants to know two things from psychiatric social work, said Grace Fraser, chief psychiatric social worker, Department of Psychiatry, Bowman Gray School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, North Carolina. Speaking on the basis of experience with both rural and urban groups, Miss Fraser said that social workers are requested to discuss how the child guidance or mental hygiene clinic can be used and what professional knowledge has to offer to the average parent. She mentioned the fact that many social workers feel that information in these areas cannot safely be given in groups but disagreed with this point of view, say-

ing that "our knowledge has too long been an esoteric possession." She claimed that social workers can learn to distill their knowledge for popular use in prevention. If the goal in education is increased skill in human relations, she said, opportunity should be taken to use new concepts as soon as they are learned. The problem of interpretation becomes, she felt, "how to inspire the individual to practice the thing he has learned." She urged that medical students and nurses be given opportunity to try out the knowledge which they gained from such educational efforts and emphasized the effectiveness of the series of discussions for lay people so that they can discuss their trials and errors in using the knowledge they have gained. If the psychiatric social worker will venture into the field of community education, said Miss Fraser, her value to the clinic team will be increased, for it enables her to bring a broader interpretation of the social setting of the community to the work of the team.

On the same program, a paper by Dr. Luther Woodward, Coordinator of Community Mental Health Activities, Mental Health Commission, New York City, was read by the chairman in Dr. Woodward's absence. This described the author's experience in group situations and on a radio program where he has carried on mental hygiene education. Dr. Woodward said he had been impressed with the fact that what is called for is an application of psychiatric social work philosophy and method in the group situation. For example, the successful group leader must be as receptive and attentive to the needs of the audience as the caseworker is to the client. Further, Dr. Woodward pointed out, the aim in this situation is the same as the aim in a casework interview—to help the client gain insight and acquire perspective. Dr. Woodward made a plea for mental health education to be given a constructive and positive approach rather than angled toward pathology and the need for professional treatment, because "people want to be reassured rather than threatened." In a series of more than 250 radio programs over a New York station, many hundreds of letters had been received, he said, and when analyzed they emphasized first that parents listen to the program because "you never blame parents, and it is very good to be assured rather than blamed." There should be nothing frightening or overawing about psychiatric social work-

ers going into this field, concluded Dr. Woodward, for "we simply have to use our knowledge of human motivation in an educational rather than a clinical way."

On a program sponsored by the National Association of School Social Workers, Mrs. Alfred Wilson, board member, National Association of School Social Workers, Minneapolis, discussed the interpretation of the school social work to the community. She emphasized first of all how important it is for an informed lay group to support professionals and to move in their wake to mobilize interest into action. From her own experience she was convinced that where parents clearly understood the value of school social service to their children, it was possible for such an interested lay group to obtain widespread support through group and communication media.

Speaking on the same program, Opal Boston, consultant, Department of Public Instruction, Chicago, discussed the interpretation of school social work to school personnel. Administrators must know their service and how it fits into the total school program, she said, and if the principal has a clear understanding of it, she will be better able to take leadership in its development as a part of the building program. However, the teacher is the most important person in the school and the teacher-child relationship the most important factor in the child's school life. Thus the kind of interpretation of school social service that is given by the teacher will influence the entire casework program of the school. Miss Boston said the fact that we sell our service best by doing a good job is only partially true. She felt that one "must discuss it and tell it" in order to obtain clear understanding.

Research.—The family unit report system, designed by himself and his associates in connection with the St. Paul project, was described by Bradley Buell, Executive Director, Community Research Associates, New York City, at a meeting sponsored by the Social Work Research Group. The system was designed for both practical and fundamental reasons, said Mr. Buell; first, because the family is "a common unit to which can be related information about special problems and specialized services which hitherto it has been impossible to view from any basis of statistical compara-

bility." Secondly, the family is the fundamental social unit of society, and the degree of its responsibility for certain basic functions is constantly changing. Thus its capacity to discharge these functions has all-important bearing upon economic need, maintenance of social and emotional stability, maintenance of good health, and provision for satisfying leisure—the four areas which the study covered. However, said Mr. Buell, the purpose of this project was not "the perfection of a mechanical instrument" but rather "to assemble materials from many varied sources, to provide the foundation for fundamental consideration of the issues involved in the community organization of these principal community services." Mr. Buell went into the background of the study at some length, sketching in the fact that the increase in specialization had created a problem for those leaders who are concerned about "recapturing that generality of attack which is so essential to the treatment of indivisible ills." He gave facts and figures which came out of the St. Paul project, showing the discrepancy between the needs and the organization of services to meet those needs.

The "thermometer" which can register the results of techniques of social work is still to be devised, declared M. Robert Gomberg, Assistant Executive Director, Jewish Family Service, New York City, speaking at the opening meeting of the social casework section. Evaluation of success in casework has tended to be "more process-centered than client-centered," said Mr. Gomberg, and there is a tendency to read a record, examine method, and prejudge effectiveness on the basis of approval or disapproval of method. There is need for more work on criteria for appraising what is happening to a client regardless of the method used, and for continued effort to refine techniques, he said. Mr. Gomberg described current inquiries being made in this field within his own agency and said that he believed that "we will see successful results from all methods, but the ultimate goal must be to find the most effective method in terms of results, time, and money." All schools of thought can work together, he said, on finding out what constitutes satisfactory evidence of treatment and what methods of research can be used to measure results.

A session of the Family Service Association of America conducted

with the Social Work Research Group was devoted to the Community Service Society's current experiments in measuring results in casework. Dr. J. McVickar Hunt, Director, Institute of Welfare Research, Community Service Society of New York, described a field test conducted to discover how the measurement scale, designed under his supervision, works in practice, and to determine how much change in the client and in his situation is associated with receiving casework. Dr. Hunt said that twenty-two caseworkers had been trained and tested in the use of the movement scale and that it had been found that the scale served quite well to standardize the judgment of different caseworkers. In a sampling of 187 individual family members in 108 cases studied, 65 percent showed improvement to some degree and only 7 percent deteriorated, according to the caseworker's judgment. Dr. Hunt pointed out that one clear disadvantage of the scale was that it provided no information about the nature of change in clients.

In his remarks as one of the discussants of Dr. Hunt's paper, Ralph Ormsby, Executive Director, Family Service of Philadelphia, said that the measurement plan is a reasonable measure of the positive or negative movement of individuals receiving or affected by casework service. Mr. Ormsby felt that the next step would be to see if other casework agencies could use and apply the scale, and he agreed with Dr. Hunt and his associates that value could come out of using the scale in conjunction with appropriate systems of classifying clients and their problems as well as in conjunction with appropriate methods of casework skill and with suitable classifications of kinds of service given. He also pointed out that the scale has been designed for uses in cases where five or more interviews have been held but that the bulk of cases seen during the year in a family agency fall into the category of relatively brief service.

Research as part of the professional curriculum in the school of social work was the subject of a paper given by William E. Gordon, Professor of Research, Nashville School of Social Work, at a session sponsored jointly by the American Association of Schools of Social Work and the Social Work Research Group. At the present time, graduate students in approved schools of social work are investing about a million dollars a year in social work research projects, said

Mr. Gordon, and are spending time which would be equivalent to the full time of a staff of 200 to 300 people. He made a plea for social work leaders to identify the major questions needing answers so as to provide "a spirit of discovery and a broad focus for research." These, he thought, could then be broken down into specific areas within which schools could organize their research projects. He emphasized that if students are to obtain educational values from research they "must do real research on however small a scale." This being so, he advocated that school research projects ought to be organized in such a way that the value of the experience for the student would be enhanced and something would be contributed for the benefit of the whole field.

Speaking as a discussant of this paper, Caroline Ware, Professor of Research, Graduate School of Social Work, Howard University, Washington, D.C., felt that schools were agreed that research is an essential component in any profession, that it cannot and should not be taught merely as a separate entity, and that the educational principles applicable to learning research are no different from those applicable to the other components of professional training. At the Howard University School, said Miss Ware, the aim is to develop research-mindedness and to make students discriminating of the results of research by others, and emphasis is placed on the meaning of materials studied for research as well as for the learning of skills. If student research is to have any significance for the profession, said Miss Ware, there must be formulation of over-all problems and general methodology so that individual pieces of research can be brought together into bodies of knowledge.

Social work education.—The contributions of the field of practice to social work education were discussed by Herbert Aptekar, Executive Director, Jewish Community Services of Queens-Nassau, Jamaica, Long Island, at a meeting sponsored by the casework section. Mr. Aptekar described typical problems in the education of the caseworker with special consideration for the training the worker receives both in school and agency in understanding and skill in the use of agency structure. He then discussed the role of the supervisor and the administrator and put emphasis upon practice in these positions for learning, although he felt, particularly in

the field of administration, that more time and attention could profitably be devoted by the schools. "Neither school nor agency can stand alone," said Mr. Aptekar, "each should complement the other in education for any or all of the fields of social work."

Results of a workshop on testing the product of schools by the performance of graduates was reported on in a meeting of the American Association of Schools of Social Work by Jeannette Regensburg, Consultant in Research and Training, Community Service Society of New York. The workshop, which was held at the time of the annual meeting of the A.A.S.S.W. in 1950, identified as "obvious and serious obstacles" to such testing the fact that there is currently "no universally accepted definition of the profession," and the handicap which arises because of social work's "imperfect measures of what is good, poor, or indifferent in practice." Factors also to be taken into consideration are the variations and differences in program practice and standards in both schools and agencies, the fact that the entire profession is in a state of flux, and the necessity for devising new techniques and remolding available techniques to social work's particular materials and purposes. However, having recognized these factors and obstacles, the workshop proposed several groups of projects. The first would be to study the relative efficiency and competency of workers with two years of graduate professional education for social work as contrasted with those of workers with less than two years or with none. Three subtopics in this pilot study would be the determination of similarities and differences in the duties undertaken, in the quantitative output, and in the attainment of qualitative standards. A second major project would be a study of specialized and generalized content, which the workshop suggested could be approached by way of a cross section of social work practice, according to method or discipline being used, in relation to performance at the end of one year's employment, or perhaps in relation to professional mobility. The third group of proposed projects, said Miss Regensburg, has to do with "preparing ourselves to study the quality of performance at some future date," and would involve preparation of detailed and documented statements of their goals and expectations by both schools and agencies.

Supervision is a skill which can be consciously taught and learned, declared Grace Marcus, casework supervisor, Rhode Island Children's Friend and Service, speaking at a meeting of the casework section, sponsored jointly with the section on administration, and it begins with the recognition that at the heart of casework is the necessity for the worker "to deal on the spot with the unpredicted and the unique." Miss Marcus stressed the fact that the supervisor's role is to help the worker develop the capacity to do the job, for "if any learning is to occur, the worker must have a part in it." Further, the supervisor has "an inescapable responsibility for seeing that the worker does the job which the agency expects her to do." Though the supervisor's job responsibility involves authority, this is "not the kind of control that would make the worker a puppet."

The untrained public assistance worker cannot be expected to have "the awareness of self and the use of self" which come from professional education, said the speaker, but the supervisor must help this worker to "change her use of herself in order to perform the public assistance job with adequacy according to the standard set by the agency." As for the experienced professional, "a characteristic of any professional practice is that it never attains perfection and never comes to the end either of its possibilities or its problems," and thus "professional growth produces the need for help," and the experienced worker "has greater capacity to be free in admitting her uncertainties." One of the prevalent lacks of the casework agency, said Miss Marcus, is associated with the absence of support for the supervisor in a supervision oriented to his own need for help.

Supervision from the point of view of social group work was discussed at a meeting of the social group work section. Though the term "high visibility" is not the term to describe the practice of supervision in the agency using the social group work method, said Margaret Williamson, Director of Training, Personnel and Training Services, National Board, Young Women's Christian Association, "a visible system of supervision, consciously and formally planned, with its provisions known, understood, and accepted by all concerned, is the only kind of supervision we can afford." Look-

ing upon supervision as "an expensive frill," or as "something which smacks too strongly of autocratic administration," arises, said Miss Williamson, from "faulty concepts of administration." Supervision is itself an administrative responsibility, she said, and constitutes an essential part of the administration of the agency. Clearly written statements of personnel policies, carefully written job descriptions, and thoughtful planning for conference time and its use are all factors which are essential in helpful supervision, she said. In supervision of volunteer leaders, group meetings, though not a substitute for supervisory conferences, supplement the conference in important ways, she felt. Miss Williamson discussed the use of evaluations and concluded that "the quality of the supervisory process will rest with the persons who undertake its responsibilities, for in the final analysis successful supervision depends on the building of a creative and productive relationship between the supervisor and the person supervised."

Speaking on the same program, Harriet Young, Director of Program, Manhattanville Neighborhood Center, New York City, observed that the supervisor is "right in the thick of the struggle, testing and retesting his own concepts and skills at the same time that he is helping others do so." The supervisory role she described as having four components—administrative, enabling, teaching, and evaluative. Miss Young discussed techniques of "involvement of the worker" in beginning conferences, and pointed out that in deciding what kind of help for the worker is called for, the supervisor "must engage in a continual weighing of various factors." For example, she said, the concern for the group or member may appear to conflict with the learning needs of the worker. Using case material from supervisory conferences, Miss Young concluded that "the needs of the group provide the basis for the supervisor's activity," that he determines this activity "in relation to his current picture of the worker," that he uses the immediate situation so as to help the worker learn from it, and that he "invokes the worker's strengths."

Supervisory practice in the family agency was the subject of one session of the Family Service Association of America. The responsibility for supervision can only be carried, said Frances T. Levinson,

Associate Executive Director of the New York City Jewish Family Service, "if the supervisor has a basic knowledge of the learning process, the sensitivity and skill inherent in knowing when the counselor's needs are for additional knowledge and when they indicate that his learning must be through his personal development." By way of a particularly vivid case situation, this speaker brought out the point at which the supervisor must make this distinction. In this situation the worker's need was to learn "through personal development," and in this connection, Miss Levinson emphasized that personal feelings based on early experiences "can constitute a block" in any casework function, but that in family casework "there is little room for a relationship controlled by the kinds of personal fantasies and prejudices which are beyond the counselor's awareness." The goal of supervision in family counseling, she concluded, is to help the worker "attain the knowledge and freedom which enable him to work with the client family as it exists in its psychology and its reality toward a more stable, productive family unit."

Speaking on the same program, Norma Levine, assistant executive of the Chicago Jewish Family and Community Service, said that in casework supervision, "content without sound pedagogical method misses the heart of our educational problem—our teaching must be geared to helping the caseworker truly integrate his knowledge, so that it may be used in helping a troubled person move toward a solution of his difficulties." Though the trained worker who is employed in an agency and reads professional literature does not need to be taught the entirety of this content by the supervisor, there will be times when gaps in the worker's knowledge are revealed, she said, and here the supervisor must take responsibility. The "how" of supervision is more important, however, said Mrs. Levine, who felt that the supervisory method should be determined on the basis of "a differential educational diagnosis of the worker." This involves knowledge of the worker's present performance, of his learning patterns, of the way he relates to other opportunities within the supervisory relationship. Basic principles of education applicable in this situation are, she said, the expectation that "the worker will have a positive readiness to learn," the knowledge that

growth can be facilitated by providing conditions favorable to it and by removing obstacles, the fact that there will be times when greater help will be required by the worker from the supervisor, and that "resistance to learning may be expected."

Supervision in school social work was discussed on a program of the National Association of School Social Workers by Ruth Smalley, Professor of Social Casework at University of Pittsburgh's School of Social Work. Supervision is a social work process which has "likenesses and differences from the practice skill it seeks to develop and evaluate," said Miss Smalley. It is used by agencies "as a way of insuring reliability and uniformity of service and of sustaining and improving quality of service," and is recognized by schools of social work as such a basic process in social work education that responsibility is taken for its development in class and field work "in a way that is characteristic of no other profession." A danger in supervision, she said, "lies in making psychiatric diagnoses of workers a basis for evaluation dismissal or demotion." This misuse, she remarked, "muddies the waters of professional responsibility for staff development and staff performance." There will be a special task for supervision in school social work, said Miss Smalley, in helping social workers who are new to the setting "come to grips with what for them is a problem in functioning as social workers within the school system." Miss Smalley predicted that "old and current attitudes toward school and teachers," and toward the kind of authority they represent, "may need to be examined" in the supervisor-worker relationship in this setting, and that workers might need help in learning to "live with the frustrations and inconveniences of practicing without some of the supporting structure possible within a social agency setting."

The real focus of administration, declared Harleigh B. Trecker, professor at the School of Social Work, University of Southern California, speaking at a meeting sponsored by the National Board, Y.W.C.A., is in relationships with people, and thus it requires "leadership with insight into behavior plus skill to help people relate to one another." It is primarily a group process which is involved, said Mr. Trecker, who discussed the kinds of records which could be used with students of administration, for, he said, "there

is emerging a definable body of knowledge and skill in the group aspects of administration." The process record is "indispensable" for teaching, he said, but it must present a real situation in good documentary fashion, showing average kinds of problems, which can be fairly easily defined, and revealing the constantly changing role of administration.

The professional component in administration is the "enabling process," said Callman Rawley, Executive Director of the Jewish Family and Children's Service in Minneapolis, and the professional focus is on "the people by whom issues are considered and executed." Manipulation of the atmosphere in which people deal with agency matters is the essential professional medium through which administration functions, he added. The good administrator must not only be able to define issues, but also to be sensitive to the way in which board members' feelings and impulses affect their reaction to issues. The most characteristic problem in administration he termed the delegation of responsibility. To cope with it, "one must keep the full agency context of the specific responsibility before the doer, not delegate more than can be kept track of, and delimit clearly the part that is to be passed on."

Security lies only in staff competence, said Mr. Rawley, but this is not possible "when executives with inadequate experience in the function of their agency are employed." The two "concentric foci" to be remembered, he said, are the job to be done and the development of the person doing it, and the latter is the focus which is uniquely professional.

At a group meeting of the section on administration, the use of audio-visual aids as methods in staff training within the social service division of the VA were reported on by Eileen Blackey, Acting Chief of the staff development section of the division. Wire recordings of interviews and conferences, she said, "offer a dynamic and realistic way of viewing practice." Films have been used too, chiefly for orientation purposes, since this has been found to be more effective and less time-consuming for staff and new worker. These media must be used in conjunction with "more tried educational methods," she warned, and should not be considered an end in themselves.

Social work administration as a component of professional social work education was discussed on a program of the administration section by Donald S. Howard, chairman of the Department of Social Welfare at the University of California at Los Angeles, and Clark Blackburn, Executive Secretary of the Family and Children's Service in Minneapolis. Social work possesses transmissible knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes which could be of value to administration in any field, said Mr. Howard. He felt the "unity of administration with other aspects of social work" should pervade the entire curriculum rather than having one class in the subject, but thought a basic course in administration should be taught to prepare the student to understand organizational structure, operating principles, and administrative processes with which they will be concerned. He raised the question as to whether the historical emphasis on casework had excluded candidates who "might have become dynamic administrators and leaders," and added that "very little that is required in education for social work can be left out of education of the social work administrator, but something more must be added."

Mr. Blackburn felt that the schools of social work should concentrate on developing sound casework and social group work practice, for administrators "should have gained knowledge through actual paid experience in the field in which they will administer." One or two courses in administration are desirable, he said, but field work placements should be in the casework or social group work setting, except for the "mature student who has already demonstrated ability as a paid practitioner."

On another program of the administration section, Albert H. Aronson, Director of the Federal Security Agency's state merit system services, told of a recent study in a large insurance company which revealed that supervisors whose workers maintained the highest rate of production placed less direct emphasis upon production than did other supervisors, and encouraged employee participation in making decisions. Mr. Aronson said there is "an important relationship between morale, productivity, and effective supervision." The soundest continuing personnel administration is attained through an effective merit system, he said, though this

"is not so much a matter of law and structure as of dynamic day-to-day application of merit principles." Since the "basic human desire for security expresses itself in administration as in other aspects of life," he recommended a system of appeals as "protection against arbitrary administrative action." It was his opinion that the social work profession "has a rich contribution to make in improving administration," for it "can contribute to personnel practice from its experience in human relations."

At a joint session of the public welfare section and the administration section, three papers on the qualifications for local public welfare administrators were given. The prime requisite of leadership in public welfare, said Karl de Schweinitz, Director of the University-Government Center on Social Security Administration, is "the ability to integrate an understanding of program with a facility in operations, to combine philosophy and process." The competent director must have a broad enough philosophy to deal with questions about the welfare state and the relation of social services to free enterprise, but he must also be able to appreciate what is involved in scheduling case loads, and devising systems of recording, as well as personnel administration and development and application of welfare policy, said Mr. de Schweinitz. He discussed the educational and experience qualifications which are desirable in this post and suggested as a helpful device which is "half way between in-service training and professional education" for the busy public welfare executive, a "social security institute," to meet as a study and discussion group for three weeks under educational leadership. The curriculum would consist of discussion of basic issues, the history of social security, the administrative process, human relations and supervision, and finally, a project which each member would select for individual study. Such a program was offered by the University-Government Center in December, 1949, he said, for state and Federal executive personnel in public assistance, social insurance, and the employment service. It can provide, he said, for a "closer integration of program and operations, of theory and practice, of philosophy and process."

In describing his conception of the necessary qualifications for the local public welfare administrator, J. Milton Patterson, Direc-

tor of the Maryland State Department of Public Welfare, emphasized the relationship with legislators:

Every ounce of his ingenuity . . . will be taxed if he is to be accepted by his legislators as a man of status operating an agency of great importance to the community's well-being. He will not achieve that enviable position by jumping through the hoops of the congressman's politically-influenced wishes. Neither will he win their confidence if he suggests indifference to their point of view.

What is needed, said Mr. Patterson, are people "with ingenuity, initiative, and imagination, who can discipline those explosive capacities to the practical task of a daily job without losing their vision."

Vision as an essential qualification, in addition to knowledge of the program and of basic social work processes, was stressed by William P. Sailer, Executive Director of the Philadelphia County Board of Assistance. This speaker said he referred not only to the kind of vision which is a part of planning, but to "vision that permits an administrator to be technically competent yet never permits him to lose sight of the people . . . that are the basis of all his operations." An administrator needs conviction, too, said Mr. Sailer, for "a lukewarm local public welfare administrator has never advanced the program."

The issues involved for professional workers in the trade union movement and the program of the Congress of Industrial Organizations in the social work field were discussed on a program sponsored by the Community and Social Agency Employees, C.I.O. Though "some people feel that the very altruism of social work objectives requires the worker to give little heed to his own welfare . . . we must remember that not all the purposes of unionism are economic, and disregard of personal welfare is poor preparation for effective service in any field," said John A. Fitch, professor, New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, retired. Collective bargaining in social agencies is a new phenomenon, he said, and both employers and "new bargainers" have adjustments to make. An employer may feel that the development of a union is "a challenge to his leadership, or a reflection upon his capacity for leadership." On the other hand, workers who are inexperienced at the bargaining

table may have attitudes which jeopardize development of good relationships. However, said Mr. Fitch, "collective bargaining in profit-making enterprises is frequently carried on in an atmosphere of good will," and "while differences of view between management and union may at times be sharp, there is a broad area of unity of purpose which is far more extensive than is generally supposed." Professional employees have the same need for organization and collective bargaining as exists in nonprofessional fields, he said, and while there are important differences between welfare agencies and profit-making enterprises, these differences should reasonably be reflected in policies and programs both of executives and unions in social work.

Speaking on the same program, Arthur Goldberg, C.I.O. legal counsel, said that the C.I.O. objectives for social work unions are the same as for other unions—to extend the benefits of collective bargaining to employees and maintain peaceful relationships between employees and employers, to maintain adherence to the obligations and responsibilities under collective bargaining agreements, and to secure legislation safeguarding the economic and social welfare of all workers. "We want our unions to represent employees vigorously and effectively," he said, "with proper consciousness of their problems. We want them to help employees maintain personal dignity, security and good standards of employment, and to have the opportunity to make a constructive contribution to their agencies." The C.I.O. had "failed in these objectives" he said, and this had "led to drastic action," in expelling the United Office and Professional Workers of America and the United Public Workers, both of which had "purported to represent" workers. The policies of these unions had led to a situation where "the interests of the workers were being misrepresented," he said. As the C.I.O. makes a fresh start in this field, he said it was his hope that social work unions, rather than "being run from the top," would function on a democratic basis.

Appendix A: Program

GENERAL SESSIONS

**GENERAL THEME: OPPORTUNITY, SECURITY, RESPONSIBILITY—
DEMOCRACY'S OBJECTIVES**

SUNDAY, APRIL 23

Ellen C. Potter, former President, National Conference of Social Work; former Deputy Commissioner, New Jersey State Department of Institutions and Agencies, Trenton, N.J., presiding
Social Work's Responsibility—Physical, Mental, and Social Well-Being

1. Essentials for the World's People

Martha M. Eliot, M.D., President, National Conference of Social Work; Assistant Director-General, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland

2. The Prescription for Our Nation

Lester B. Granger, First Vice President, National Conference of Social Work; Executive Director, National Urban League, New York

MONDAY, APRIL 24

Donald S. Howard, Third Vice President, National Conference of Social Work; Chairman, Department of Social Welfare, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, presiding

The Economic Situation and Its Effect on Social Welfare Services
Ewan Clague, Commissioner, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D.C.

Martha M. Eliot, M.D., President, National Conference of Social Work; Assistant Director-General, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, presiding

The Survey Award for 1950—Leonard W. Mayo, Chairman of the Award Committee

The Welfare State—a State of the General Welfare

Hubert H. Humphrey, United States Senator from Minnesota, Washington, D.C. (Paper presented by Max Kempelman, legislative counsel for Senator Humphrey; former Professor of Political Science, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis)

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

Helen Russell Wright, Second Vice President, National Conference of Social Work; Dean, School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago, Chicago, presiding

Security for Children and Youth

Leonard W. Mayo, Executive Director, Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, New York

Annual Business Session

Lester B. Granger, First Vice President, National Conference of Social Work; Executive Director, National Urban League, New York, presiding

The Quest for Economic Security—Whose Responsibility?

1. A Point of View from Management

Marion B. Folsom, Treasurer, Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N.Y.

2. A Point of View from Labor

Nelson H. Cruikshank, Director, Social Insurance Activities, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D.C.

3. A Point of View regarding Government's Role

John J. Corson, Circulation Manager, *Washington Post*, Washington, D.C.

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

Martha M. Eliot, M.D., President, National Conference of Social Work; Assistant Director-General, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, presiding

Cooperative Planning for Social Welfare

1. By Governmental Organizations

Chester Bowles, Governor of Connecticut, Hartford, Conn.

2. By Voluntary Organizations

Frank Weil, President, National Social Welfare Assembly, New York; President, National Jewish Welfare Board, New York

THE SECTIONS

I. SOCIAL CASEWORK

Ruth Smalley, Professor of Social Casework, School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Chairman

M. Robert Gomberg, Assistant Executive Director, Jewish Family Service, New York, Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

Ruth Smalley, Professor of Social Casework, School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, presiding

Purpose and Method in Social Casework

1. An Understanding of the Dynamics of Growth and Development Which Underlies the Practice of Social Casework

Jessie Taft, Professor of Social Casework, University of Pennsylvania School of Social Work, Philadelphia

2. Criteria for Social Casework Helpfulness

M. Robert Gomberg, Assistant Executive Director, Jewish Family Service, New York

(Joint Session with Section XII—Administration)

John C. Kidneigh, Associate Director, School of Social Work, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn., presiding

The Place of the Administrative and Supervisory Processes in Implementing Sound Practice in Social Casework

1. What Is Professional Administration of a Social Casework Agency?

Callman Rawley, Executive Director, Jewish Family and Children's Service, Minneapolis, Minn.

2. What Is Professional Supervision within a Social Casework Agency?

Grace Marcus, Casework Supervisor, Rhode Island Children's Friend and Service, Providence, R.I.

Group Meeting 1

Ruth Fizdale, Director, Family Service Department, New York Association for New Americans, New York, presiding

Social Casework with Displaced Persons

1. Social Casework with the Adult in a Program of Social Casework with Displaced Persons

Pauline Gardescu, Executive Secretary, International Institute of Milwaukee Co., Milwaukee, Wis.

2. Social Casework with the Adolescent in a Program of Social Casework with Displaced Persons

Beatrice Carter, Casework Director, Jewish Family and Children's Service, Boston

Group Meeting 2 (Joint Session with Section VII—Public Welfare)

Virginia L. Taunar, Associate Professor of Social Casework, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, presiding

Social Casework in Public Assistance

1. Social Casework within the Aid to Dependent Children Program Esther Lazarus, Assistant Director, Department of Public Welfare, Baltimore

2. The Use of Casework Skills in Public Assistance

Arnette Burwell, Director of Training, Department of Public Welfare, Detroit

Group Meeting 3 (Joint Session with Section III—Delinquency; Section IX—Mental Health)

Mrs. Helvi Boothe, Director of Psychiatric Social Work, the Menninger Foundation, Topeka, Kans., presiding
Social Casework with Emotionally Disturbed Clients

1. Social Casework with Emotionally Disturbed Clients within a Nonclinical Setting
Reva Rockmore, Assistant Supervisor, Travelers Aid Society of New York, New York
2. Social Casework with Emotionally Disturbed Clients within a Clinical Setting
Joseph Andriola, Chief Psychiatric Social Worker, Patton State Hospital, Patton, Calif.

Group Meeting 4

Florence Hollis, Associate Professor of Social Work, New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, New York, presiding
Social Casework in a Private Family Agency

1. The Effective Use of Casework Principles in the Family Agency
Mary Rall, District Secretary, Family Service Bureau, United Charities, Chicago
2. Differences in Clients' Internalization of Counseling Problems and Their Effect on Process: Three Case Examples
Frank Winer, Social Caseworker, Jewish Family and Children's Service, Minneapolis

Group Meeting 5

Irving Greenberg, Assistant Chief, Social Service Division, Veterans Administration, Washington, D.C., presiding
Social Casework with Veterans

1. Social Casework within a Veterans Administration Hospital
Arthur L. Leader, Acting Chief of Social Service, Veterans Administration Hospital, Topeka, Kans.
2. Social Casework within a Veterans Administration Regional Office
Dorothy McCague, Chief Social Worker, Veterans Administration Regional Office, Pittsburgh

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

Sarah Ivins, Director of Field Work, New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, New York, presiding
Social Casework Practice and Education for Social Work

1. The Contribution of Social Casework Practice to Education for Social Work
Herbert Aptekar, Executive Director, Jewish Community Services of Queens-Nassau, Jamaica, N.Y.

2. The Contribution of Education for Social Casework to Practice
Charlotte Towle, Professor of Social Service Administration,
School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago,
Chicago

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

Group Meeting 1 (Joint Session with Section II—Child Care)

Lois Wildy, Director of Casework, Illinois Children's Home and
Aid Society, Chicago, presiding

Social Casework in Foster Home Placement

1. The "Home Study" in Adoptive Placement
Marion B. Nicholson, Director, Los Angeles Branch, Children's
Home Society, Los Angeles
2. Direct Casework with the Child in Foster Home Placement
Ruth Weisenbarger, Assistant Director, Sheltering Arms Children's Service, New York

*Group Meeting 2 (Joint Session with Section II—Child Care; Section
III—Delinquency)*

Almena Dawley, Associate Director, Philadelphia Child Guidance
Clinic, Philadelphia, presiding

Social Casework in Relation to Problems in Parent-Child Relationships
When the Child Is in His Own Home

1. Social Casework within a Child Guidance Clinic
Dorothy Hankins, Psychiatric Social Worker, Philadelphia
Child Guidance Clinic, Philadelphia
2. Social Casework within a Family Agency
Elsa Leichter, Social Caseworker, Jewish Family Service, New
York

*Group Meeting 3 (Joint Session with Section II—Child Care; Section
VIII—Health)*

Jane Johnson, Director, Social Service Department, Indiana University
Medical Center, Indianapolis, presiding

Social Casework as Part of the Medical Care of Children

1. Social Casework with the Child in a Hospital Setting
Celia Moss, Director, Social Service Department, Montefiore
Hospital, Pittsburgh
2. Social Casework with Convalescent Children
Jessie Peake, Supervisor, Department of Health Services, Children's Aid Society, New York

*Group Meeting 4 (Joint Session with Section II—Child Care; Section
III—Delinquency)*

Florence Poole, Associate Professor of Social Casework, School
of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, presiding

Social Casework with Children as Part of the Service of a School and of a Court

1. Social Casework in a Juvenile Court

C. Wilson Anderson, Director, Family Court of Delaware, Wilmington, Del.

2. Social Casework in a Public School

Jane Wille, Social Casework Supervisor, Division of Child Guidance and Accounting, Pittsburgh Schools, Pittsburgh

Group Meeting 5 (Joint Session with Section II—Child Care; Section V—Social Group Work; Section VIII—Health)

Henrietta L. Gordon, Information and Publication Secretary, Child Welfare League of America, New York, presiding

Social Casework as Part of a Service to Children within a Group Work Setting and within a Program of Institutional Care

1. Work with the Individual as Part of Group Work

Gertrude Wilson, Professor of Social Group Work, School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh

2. Social Casework within an Institution

Morris F. Mayer, Resident Director, Bellefaire, Cleveland

II. CHILD CARE

Lois Wildy, Director of Casework, Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, Chicago, Chairman

Jeanne Jewett, Assistant Administrator, State Public Welfare Commission, Portland, Oreg., Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(Joint Session with Section IX—Mental Health)

The Significance of the Multidiscipline Approach to Child Development for Social Workers

Joseph Steinert, Consulting Psychologist, Brooklyn Council Child Development Center, Brooklyn, N.Y.

Co-authors:

Peter B. Neubauer, M.D., Chief Psychiatrist, Community Service Society, Brooklyn Council Child Development Center, Brooklyn, N.Y.

Katherine Wolf, Research Consultant, Manhattan Office, Council Child Development Center, New York; Instructor, Child Study Center, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

Discussant:

Charlotte Towle, Professor of Social Service Administration, School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago, Chicago

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

Group Meeting 1

Saidie Orr Dunbar, Chairman, Governor's State Committee on Children and Youth of Oregon; Executive Secretary, Oregon Tuberculosis and Health Association, presiding

Legal Guardianship of Children?

Irving Weissman, Professor of Social Research, School of Social Work, Tulane University, New Orleans

Discussants:

Alex Elson, Lecturer, School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago, Chicago

Alan Keith-Lucas, Director, Child Welfare Division, Louisiana Department of Public Welfare, Baton Rouge, La.

Group Meeting 2

Maxwell Hahn, Executive Vice President, the Field Foundation, New York, presiding

Trends in Foster Care of Children and Their Implications for Child Welfare Agencies

Spencer Crookes, Executive Director, Child Welfare League of America, New York

Discussants:

Loa Howard, Administrator, State Public Welfare Commission, Portland, Oreg.

Leon H. Richman, Executive Director, Jewish Children's Bureau, Cleveland

Group Meeting 3

Martha Branscombe, Director, Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, Chicago, presiding

Basic Objectives of Nursery School and Day Care Services for Children

Mary Elizabeth Keister, Professor of Child Development, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

Discussant:

Samuel M. Wishik, Director, Bureau of Child Health, New York

Chrys Mikkelsen, DeKalb County Child Welfare Services, Illinois Department of Public Welfare

(Joint Session with Section V—Social Group Work, Group Meeting 3)

Group Work in Children's Institutions

(Joint Session with Section VII—Public Welfare)

The Midcentury White House Conference in Action

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

Group Meeting 1 (Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework)

Social Casework in Foster Home Placement

Group Meeting 2 (Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework)

Social Casework in Relation to Problems in Parent-Child Relationships When the Child Is in His Own Home

Group Meeting 3 (Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework)

Social Casework as Part of the Medical Care of Children

Group Meeting 4 (Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework)

Social Casework with Children as Part of the Service of a School and of a Court

Group Meeting 5 (Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework)

Social Casework as Part of a Service to Children within a Group Work Setting and within a Program of Institutional Care

III. DELINQUENCY

Ralph Whelan, Executive Secretary, New York City Youth Board, New York, Chairman

Herbert E. Chamberlain, M.D., Consulting Psychiatrist, Sacramento, Calif., Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

Randolph E. Wise, Director of Parole, National Probation and Parole Association, New York, presiding

Relationship of the Correctional Institution to Community Agencies

1. From the Viewpoint of the Community

Roberts J. Wright, Assistant General Secretary, American Prison Association and the Prison Association of New York, New York

2. From the Viewpoint of the Social Agency

Dorothy L. Book, Dean, Boston College School of Social Work, Boston

3. From the Viewpoint of the Institution

Charles Leonard, Superintendent, Illinois State Training School for Boys, St. Charles, Ill.

Group Meeting I

G. Howland Shaw, President, Welfare Council of New York City, New York, presiding

Young People Help Each Other

1. Youth Battles Back

Jim Nelson, New York

2. Teams of Boys Working in a Neighborhood

"Red" Sullivan, Chicago

Discussants:

The Rev. Robert E. Gallagher, Executive Director, Youth Counseling Service of the Archdiocese of New York, New York

Fritz Redl, Professor of Social Work, Wayne University School of Public Affairs and Social Work, Detroit

Group Meeting 2

Ralph W. Whelan, Executive Secretary, New York City Youth Board, New York, presiding
Reaching the Unreached

1. Early Recognition of Psychopathy in the Classroom
Aloysius Church, M.D., Administrative Psychiatrist, Detroit Public School System, Detroit
2. The Pressures of Adolescent Girls in High Delinquency Neighborhoods
Dorothy Fleming, Area Worker, Central Harlem Streets Club Project, New York
3. Resistance in Delinquency—Problem for Both Agency and Client
Harris B. Peck, M.D., Senior Psychiatrist, Treatment Clinic, New York City Court of Domestic Relations, New York

(*Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 3*)

Social Casework with Emotionally Disturbed Clients

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

(*Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 2*)
Social Casework in Relation to Problems in Parent-Child Relationships When the Child Is in His Own Home

(*Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 4*)
Social Casework with Children as Part of the Service of a School and of a Court

IV. THE AGED

Lucille M. Smith, Public Health Administrator, Division of Public Health Methods, United States Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C., Chairman

V. Charlotte Authier, Director, Division of Auxiliary Services, Department of Welfare, New York, Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

Ollie Randall, Consultant on Services for the Aged, Community Service Society of New York, New York, presiding
Age with a Future

Wilma Donahue, Institute for Human Adjustment, School of Graduate Studies, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Discussant:

J. M. Wedemeyer, Assistant Director, Department of Social Security, Olympia, Wash.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

(Joint Session with Section VIII—Health)

Chronic Illness—Its Impact on National Economy and Family Life
(Joint Session with Section VIII—Health)

Resources and Services for Chronically Ill Individuals Needing Care
at Home or in Nursing Homes

(Joint Session with Section V—Social Group Work, Group Meeting 2)
Programs to Enrich the Lives of the Older People in Our Communities

V. SOCIAL GROUP WORK

Clyde E. Murray, Executive Director, Manhattanville Neighborhood Center, New York, Chairman

Homer Bishop, Assistant Professor of Social Group Work, George Warren Brown School of Social Work, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo., Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(Joint Session with Section VI—Community Organization and Planning)

Clara M. Kaiser, Professor of Social Work, New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, New York, presiding

Implications of Research in Group Dynamics to Group Work and Community Organization

1. Current Developments in Group Dynamics

Leon Festinger, Program Director, Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

2. Relation of the Research Center of Group Dynamics to the Practice of Social Work

Grace L. Coyle, Professor of Social Group Work, School of Applied Social Sciences, Western Reserve University, Cleveland

Clyde E. Murray, Executive Director, Manhattanville Neighborhood Center, New York, presiding

Grouping Devices for Intercultural Goals

1. Agency-initiated Groupings

Margaret Berry, Executive Director, Soho Community House, Pittsburgh

2. Self-initiated Groupings

William Brueckner, Executive Director, Chicago Commons, Chicago

3. Opinions of Practitioners as to Sound Intercultural Practice in Groupings

Russell Hogrefe, Research Associate, Commission on Community Interrelations, American Jewish Congress, New York

Group Discussion 1

Teen-Agers—Friendship Groups and Interest Groups

Chairman: Rose W. Dobrof, Supervisor, Adult Activities, Young Men's and Women's Hebrew Association, Pittsburgh

Resource: Celia Bach, Director of Activities, Jewish Community Center of Essex County, Newark, N.J.

Group Discussion 2

Adults—Friendship Groups and Interest Groups

Resource: Robert Perlman, Group Worker, Jewish Community Centers of Chicago, Chicago

Group Discussion 3

Children—Friendship Groups and Interest Groups

Chairman: Margaret E. Hartford, Executive Secretary, American Service Institute of Allegheny County, Pittsburgh

Resource: Grace Ganter, Chicago Commons Association, Chicago

Group Discussion 4

Intergroup Councils

Chairman: Frances H. Edwards, Director, Emerson House, Chicago

Resource: Irwin H. Gold, Administrative Assistant, Jewish Community Centers of Chicago, Chicago

Group Discussion 5

Athletic Competition

Chairman: Ruby Pernell, Instructor, School of Social Work, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis

Resource: Edward Williams, Physical Education Instructor, New Lincoln School, New York

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

Group Meeting 1 (Joint Session with Section VIII—Health)

Agnes Schroeder, Professor of Medical Social Work, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, presiding

Group Work within a Medical Setting

Gertrude Wilson, Professor of Social Group Work, School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh

Discussants:

Raymond Fisher, Assistant Professor of Social Group Work, School of Applied Social Sciences, Western Reserve University, Cleveland

Mary Ellen Hubbard, Service in Military Hospital, Eastern Area, American Red Cross, Alexandria, Va.

Claire Lustman, Chief of Social Service, Aspinwall Hospital, United States Veterans Administration, Pittsburgh
 Freda Goldfeld, Director, Social Service Department, Beth Israel Hospital, New York

Group Meeting 2 (Joint Session with Section IV—The Aged)

Harry Levine, Administrator, Special Services to the Aged, Department of Welfare, New York, presiding
 Programs to Enrich the Lives of the Older People in Our Communities

1. **The Aged Are People**

Helen Hall, Executive Director, Henry Street Settlement, New York

2. **A Progress Report: Two Years of a Golden Age Club**

Arthur M. Goldman, Executive Director, Neighborhood House, Portland, Oreg.

Group Meeting 3 (Joint Session with Section II—Child Care)

Saul Bernstein, Professor of Group Work, School of Social Work, Boston University, Boston, presiding

Group Work in Children's Institutions

1. **Therapeutic Values of Group Experience in a Children's Institution**

J. Franklin Robinson, M.D., Director, Children's Service Center of Wyoming Valley, Wilkes-Barre, Pa.

2. **Gearing a Group Work Program to Meet the Needs of Children in an Institutional Setting**

Netta Berman, Group Work Supervisor, Cleveland Jewish Children's Home, Cleveland

(Joint Session with Section VII—Public Welfare)

The Midcentury White House Conference in Action

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

Ira L. Gibbons, Assistant Professor of Social Work, Howard University School of Social Work, Washington, D.C., presiding

Use of Supervision to Enable the Most Effective Functioning of Group Work

1. **The Visible Aspects of Supervision**

Margaret Williamson, Director of Training, Personnel and Training Services, National Board, Young Women's Christian Association, New York

2. **The Invisible Aspects of Supervision**

Harriet Young, Director of Program, Manhattanville Neighborhood Center, New York

(Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 5)

Social Casework as Part of a Service to Children within a Group Work Setting and within a Program of Institutional Care

VI. COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION AND PLANNING

Isidore Sobeloff, Executive Director, Jewish Welfare Federation, Detroit, Chairman

Russell Kurtz, Community Service Society of New York, New York, Acting Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(*Joint Session with Section V—Social Group Work*)

Implications of Research in Group Dynamics to Group Work and Community Organization

Merrill F. Krughoff, Director, Health and Welfare Planning Department, Community Chests and Councils of America, New York, presiding

Criteria of Effective Structure and Operation of a Community Welfare Council

1. An Experiment in Developing a Procedure for Self-Appraisal of a Council

John B. Dawson, Executive Director, Health and Welfare Council, Philadelphia

2. Experimentation with Self-Appraisal by Massachusetts Councils Eleanor S. Washburn, Executive Secretary, Massachusetts Community Organization Service, Boston

3. Findings of the Blue Ridge Institute on Council Self-Appraisal James W. Fogarty, Executive Secretary, Greensboro Council of Social Agencies, Greensboro, N.C.

(*Joint Session with Section VIII—Health*)

New Methods of Community Teamwork for Early Case-Finding and Prevention

Group Meeting 1

Rudolph T. Danstedt, Executive Director, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis Co., St. Louis, Mo., presiding

Application of the Principle of Federated Financing to the Confusing Problem of Multiple Appeals in State and Local Communities

1. Local Efforts to Develop More Orderly Procedure for Financing Voluntary Services

Myron Falk, Executive Director, Community Chest of Baton Rouge, Baton Rouge, La.

2. State and National Efforts to Develop More Orderly Procedures for Financing Voluntary Services

Earle G. Lippincott, Program Secretary, United Health and Welfare Fund of Michigan, Lansing, Mich.

3. Elements Essential to Securing Maximum Positive Values from Any Federated Fund-raising System
Arch Mandel, Program Director, Community Chests and Councils of America, New York

Group Meeting 2

Raymond Hilliard, Commissioner of Welfare, Department of Welfare, New York, presiding

Community Organization in Support of Public Welfare Programs

Ralph Blanchard, Executive Director, Community Chests and Councils of America, New York City

Discussants:

Mrs. John M. Moore, President, Marion County Board of Public Welfare, Indianapolis

Thomas J. S. Waxter, Director, Department of Public Welfare, Baltimore

Group Meeting 3 (Joint Session with Section VIII—Health)

Lucille M. Smith, Public Health Administrator, Division of Public Health Methods, United States Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C., presiding

Organization of Local Health Agencies and Resources: an Important Part of Community Welfare Planning

1. The Local Health Department Plans

George James, M.D., Principal Epidemiologist, State Department of Health, Albany, N.Y.

2. The Local Community Welfare Council Plans

Alexander Ropchan, Executive Secretary, Health Division, Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago, Chicago

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

Panel Discussion: Appraisal of the Methods, Costs, and Results of Community Surveys

Chairman: C. F. McNeil, Director, School of Social Administration, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

Panel Participants:

Arch Mandel, Associate Executive Director, Community Chests and Councils of America, New York

Robert P. Lane, consultant to the Board of Directors, Community Chest of Allegheny County, Pittsburgh

Sydney B. Markey, Director, Milwaukee County Survey, Milwaukee, Wis.

Ralph H. Smith, Executive Director, Albany Community Chest, Albany, N.Y.

William J. Smith, Executive Director, Community Chest and Council of Greater Peoria, Peoria, Ill.

Harry M. Carey, Executive Director, United Community Services of Metropolitan Boston, Boston

Group Meeting 1 (Joint Session with Section IX—Mental Health)

Marian McBee, Director, state and local organization, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York, presiding

Community Interpretation of a Mental Health Program

1. Organizing for Mental Health in the Local Community

Samuel Whitman, Executive Director, Cleveland Mental Hygiene Association, Cleveland

2. Relating the State Mental Hygiene Program to the Local Community

Iva Aukes, Associate Director, Illinois Society for Mental Hygiene, Chicago

Group Meeting 2

Wilber I. Newstetter, professor, School of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, presiding

Securing Lay Participation in Community Organization for Delinquency Prevention and Control

1. The Bronx Pilot Plant—an Experiment in Joint Planning between a Public Agency and the Community

Lester Peddy, Director of Borough Programs, New York City Youth Board, New York

2. Teamwork in Planning Youth Services in Los Angeles

Henry W. Waltz, Executive Secretary, Metropolitan Recreation and Youth Services Council, Los Angeles

Group Meeting 3

Mildred H. Esgar, Director of Field Service Cooperation, National Social Welfare Assembly, New York, presiding

National-local Relationships as Focused in the Role of the Field Worker Visiting the Local Community

1. The National Community—a Sociological Analysis of the Setting in Which the Field Worker of a National Agency Operates

Nathan E. Cohen, Professor of Social Work, New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, New York

2. The Field Worker of the National Agency—Liaison between Local Needs and National Services

Helen Rowe, Associate National Director, Camp Fire Girls, New York

(Joint Session with Section VIII—Health)

Resources and Services for Chronically Ill Individuals Needing Care at Home or in Nursing Homes

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

(Joint Session with Section XI—Methods of Social Action)
Councils of Social Agencies and Social Action

VII. PUBLIC WELFARE

Ellen Winston, Commissioner, State Board of Public Welfare, Raleigh, N.C., Chairman

Crystal M. Potter, Deputy Commissioner, Department of Welfare, New York, Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(Joint Session with Section X—Industrial and Economic Problems)

Elizabeth Wickenden, Washington Representative, American Public Welfare Association, Washington, D.C., presiding

Implications of an Expanded Social Security Program

1. Implications of an Expanded Social Insurance Program

Oscar C. Pogge, Director, Bureau of Old Age and Survivors' Insurance, Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency, Baltimore

2. Implications of Expanded Programs in Public Assistance and Child Welfare

Arthur J. Altmeyer, Commissioner, Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

(Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 2)
Social Casework in Public Assistance

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

Group Meeting 1 (Joint Session with Section XII—Administration)

Ellen Winston, Commissioner, State Board of Public Welfare, Raleigh, N.C., presiding

Qualifications for the Local Public Welfare Administrator

1. From the Viewpoint of Planning a Training Program

Karl de Schweinitz, Director, University-Government Center on Social Security Administration, Washington, D.C.

2. From the Viewpoint of a State Administrator

J. Milton Patterson, Director, State Department of Public Welfare, Baltimore

3. From the Viewpoint of a Local Administrator

William P. Sailer, Executive Director, Philadelphia County Board of Assistance, Philadelphia

Group Meeting 2

Sanford Bates, Commissioner, Department of Institutions and Agencies, Trenton, N.J., presiding

Public Relations in Public Welfare

Rosemary Morrissey, Public Relations Counsel, Orleans Parish Department of Public Welfare, New Orleans

Discussants:

Felix Gentile, Executive Director, Board of Community Relations of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio

Mary Taylor, Director, Division of Reports, United States Children's Bureau, Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

Group Meeting 3

Marietta Stevenson, Director, Division of Social Welfare Administration, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., presiding

Current Trends in Services Offered by Public Welfare Agencies

1. A Broadening Concept of Child Welfare

Fred DelliQuadri, Superintendent, Division of Child Welfare, State Department of Public Welfare, Springfield, Ill.

2. Services Offered Older People

Peter Kasius, Deputy Commissioner, State Department of Social Welfare, New York

3. Prevention as a Major Approach

Donald S. Howard, Chairman, Department of Social Welfare, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles

(Joint Session with Section II—Child Care; Section V—Social Group Work)

Margaret Price, Chairman, Advisory Council on State and Local Action, Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, Ann Arbor, Mich., presiding

The Midcentury White House Conference in Action

1. Mobilizing the Nation

Melvin A. Glasser, Executive Director, Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, Washington, D.C.

2. Mobilizing the State

Loa Howard, Administrator, Oregon State Public Welfare Commission, Portland, Oreg.

3. Mobilizing the Community

Ruth O. Bell, Field Supervisor, State Department of Public Welfare, Orangeburg, S.C.

VIII. HEALTH

Edith G. Seltzer, Director, Special Services, United Hospital Fund of New York, New York, Chairman

Mary M. Maxwell, Director, Social Service Department, State University of Iowa Hospitals, Iowa City, Iowa, Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(Joint Session with Section VI—Community Organization and Planning)

Edith G. Seltzer, Director, Special Services, United Hospital Fund of New York, New York, presiding
New Methods of Community Teamwork for Early Case-Finding and Prevention

1. Multiphasic Screening

Walter H. Maddux, M.D., Director, Herman G. Morgan Health Center, Flanner House, Indianapolis

2. A Community Project in Tuberculosis Case-Finding

Elizabeth P. Rice, Assistant Professor of Medical Social Work, School of Public Health, Harvard University, Boston

(Joint Session with Section VI—Community Organization and Planning, Group Meeting 3)

Organization of Local Health Agencies and Resources: an Important Part of Community Welfare Planning

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

(Joint Session with Section IV—The Aged; Section X—Industrial and Economic Problems)

Edith G. Seltzer, Director, Special Services, United Hospital Fund of New York, New York, presiding

Chronic Illness—Its Impact on National Economy and Family Life

1. Chronic Illness—the Nation's Number One Health Problem

W. Palmer Dearing, M.D., Deputy Surgeon-General, United States Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

2. The Economics of Caring for Patients with Chronic Diseases (Based on the New York State Hospital Study)

Eli Ginzberg, Director, New York State Hospital Study, School of Business, Columbia University, New York

3. Chronic Illness—National Planning by Voluntary Agencies

Morton L. Levin, M.D., Director, Commission on Chronic Illness, Chicago

(Joint Session with Section IV—The Aged; Section VI—Community Organization and Planning)

Panel Discussion: Resources and Services for Chronically Ill Individuals Needing Care at Home or in Nursing Homes

1. The Effect of Long-Term Illness on the Family and the Patient

2. The Community's Need for Services to the Long-Term Patient in His Own Home

3. Improving Standards in Nursing Homes

Chairman: Morton L. Levin, M.D., Director, Commission on Chronic Illness, Chicago

Panel Participants:

Irene G. Buckley, Director, Counseling Service, United Hospital Fund of New York, New York

Edith Baker, Director, Medical Social Work Unit, Division of Health Services, United States Children's Bureau, Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C. Geneva Feamon, Medical Social Consultant, Division on Chronic Disease, United States Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

Joseph H. Kinnaman, M.D., Deputy Commissioner, Nassau County Department of Health, Mineola, N.Y.

Ellen C. Potter, M.D., formerly Director, Division of Medicine, New Jersey State Department of Institutions and Agencies, Trenton, N.J.

(*Joint Session with Section V—Social Group Work, Group Meeting 1*)
Group Work within a Medical Setting

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

(*Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 3*)

Social Casework as Part of the Medical Care of Children

(*Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 5*)

Social Casework as Part of a Service to Children within a Group Work Setting and within a Program of Institutional Care

IX. MENTAL HEALTH

Adaline Johnesse, Psychiatric Social Work Consultant, Vocational Rehabilitation, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C., Chairman
Marian McBee, Executive Secretary, New York Committee on Mental Hygiene, State Charities Aid Association, New York, Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(*Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework, Group Meeting 3*)

Social Casework with Emotionally Disturbed Clients

(*Joint Session with Section II—Child Care*)

The Significance of the Multidiscipline Approach to Child Development for Social Workers

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

Recent Developments in Hospital Care for the Mentally Ill

Albert Deutsch

(*Joint Session with Section VI—Community Organization and Planning, Group Meeting 1*)

Community Interpretation of a Mental Health Program

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

Counseling Service for the Individual Seeking Help for His Emotional Problems

1. The Role of the Clergyman

Seward Hiltner, Department of Pastoral Service, Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, New York

2. Psychiatric Social Worker as Counselor

Cynthia Nathan, Chief, Social Service Section, Public Health Service, Washington, D.C.

3. The Role of the Psychologist

X. INDUSTRIAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

Elizabeth S. Magee, General Secretary, National Consumers League, Cleveland, Chairman

Linna E. Bresette, Field Secretary, Social Action Department, National Catholic Welfare Conference, Washington, D.C., Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(Joint Session with Section VII—Public Welfare)

Implications of an Expanded Social Security Program

(Joint Session with Section XI—Methods of Social Action)

Elizabeth S. Magee, General Secretary, National Consumers League, Cleveland, presiding

Progress in Meeting Discrimination in Employment

1. Have FEPC Laws Increased Opportunities for Negroes?

Harold A. Lett, Acting Director, Division against Discrimination, New Jersey Department of Education, Newark, N.J.

2. The Mexican-American

H. L. Mitchell, President, National Farm Labor Union, Washington, D.C.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

(Joint Session with Section VIII—Health)

Chronic Illness—Its Impact on National Economy and Family Life

XI. METHODS OF SOCIAL ACTION

Joseph P. Anderson, Executive Secretary, American Association of Social Workers, New York, Chairman

William W. Burke, Professor of Social Work, School of Social Work, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo., Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(*Joint Session with Section X—Industrial and Economic Problems*)

Progress in Meeting Discrimination in Employment

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

(*Joint Session with Section VI—Community Organization and Planning*)

Joseph P. Anderson, Executive Secretary, American Association of Social Workers, New York, presiding

Councils of Social Agencies and Social Action

Councils of Social Agencies and Social Legislation

Violet Sieder, Associate, Health and Welfare Planning Department, Community Chests and Councils of America, New York

XII. ADMINISTRATION

John C. Kidneigh, Director, School of Social Work, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Chairman

James T. Brunot, Secretary, National Budget Committee, New York, Vice Chairman

MONDAY, APRIL 24

(*Joint Session with Section I—Social Casework*)

The Place of the Administrative and Supervisory Processes in Implementing Sound Practice in Social Casework

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26

(*Joint Session with Section VII—Public Welfare, Group Meeting 1*)

Qualifications for the Local Public Welfare Administrator

Group Meeting 1

James T. Brunot, Secretary, National Budget Committee, New York, presiding

The Function of Research in Social Work Administration

1. Establishment of Administrative Policy

Bertram J. Black, Executive Associate, Jewish Board of Guardians, New York

2. Appraisal of Effectiveness of Social Work Administration

Anne E. Geddes, Chief, Division of Statistics and Analysis, Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

Group Discussion 2

Staff Development and In-Service Training, New Developments and Techniques

Discussion Leader: Alice Taylor, Division of Technical Training, Bureau of Public Assistance, Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

Discussants:

Eileen Blackey, Acting Chief, Staff Development Section, Social Services Division, Department of Medicine and Surgery, Veterans Administration, Washington, D.C.

Gladys Gallup, Assistant Chief, Division of Field Studies and Training, Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

Group Meeting 3

John Moore, Assistant Director, National Social Welfare Assembly, New York, presiding

Personnel Problems in Social Work Administration

Human Dynamics in Administration—the Social Work and Personnel Approaches

Albert H. Aronson, Director, State Merit System Services, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

Discussants:

Norman A. Durfee, Administrator, Personnel Services, American National Red Cross, Washington, D.C.

Ernest Witte, President, American Association of Social Workers, Seattle

Elmer Andrews, New Jersey State Department of Institutions and Agencies, Trenton, N.J.

FRIDAY, APRIL 28

John C. Kidneigh, Director, School of Social Work, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, presiding

Social Work Administration as a Component of Professional Social Work Education

1. From Point of View of Curriculum Building

Donald S. Howard, Chairman, Department of Social Welfare, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles

2. From Point of View of Practice in the Field

Clark Blackburn, Executive Secretary, Family and Children's Service, Minneapolis

Appendix B: Business Organization of the Conference for 1950

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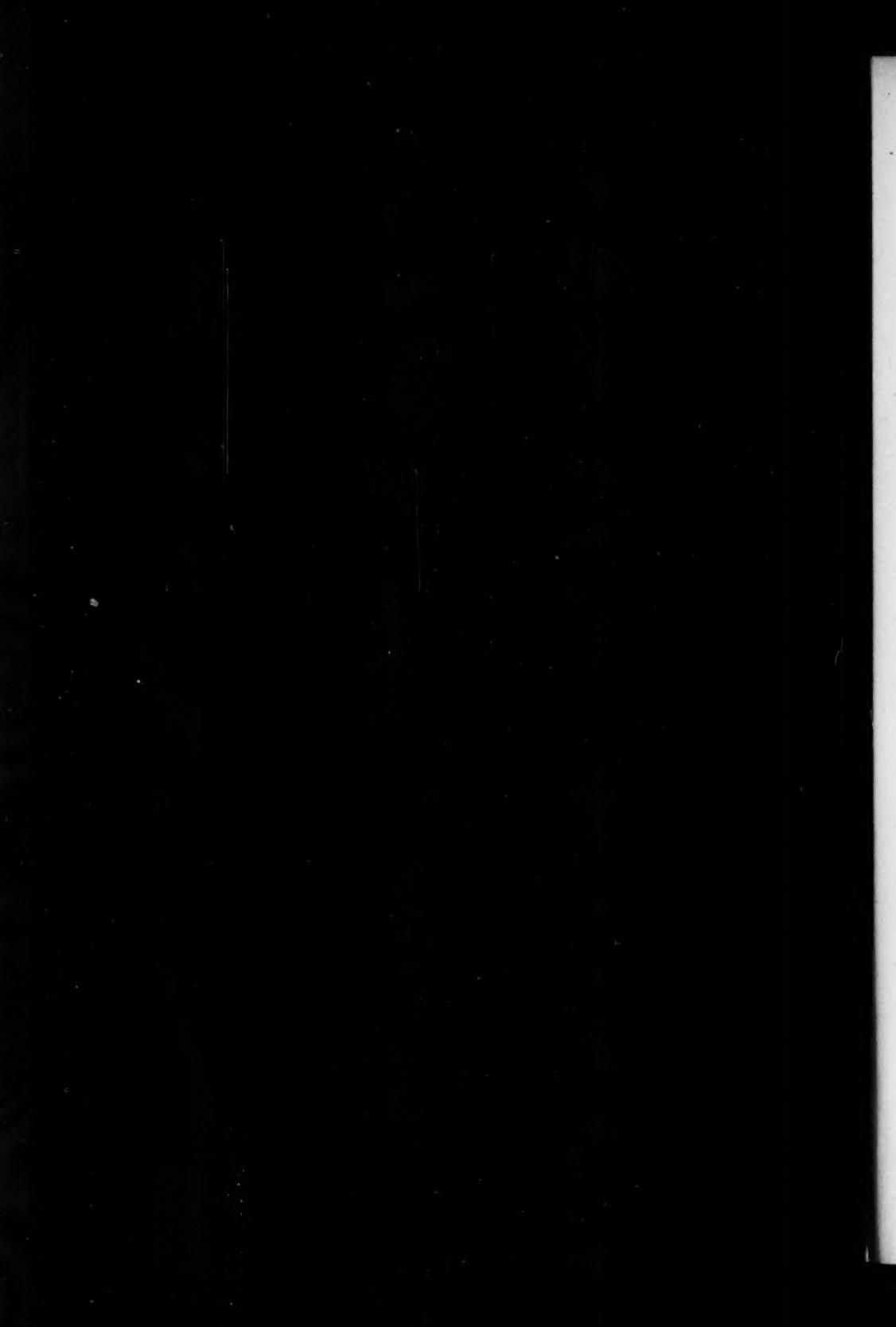
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